

The Nation.

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The Week.

The movement of those Democrats who supported Palmer and Buckner four years ago, looking to a convention to be held at Indianapolis on the 25th of July, is a note of encouragement to all independent voters. Those whose views on the subject of Imperialism prevent them from voting for McKinley, and whose opposition to the vagaries of Bryan deters them from supporting him, will hail it with satisfaction, since it promises to give them something positive to work for, instead of leaving them in a merely negative attitude. Mr. George Foster Peabody, the Chairman of the Palmer and Buckner National Committee, puts both of these subjects together as matters of deep concern to a large body of voters. "We want to see," he says, "what the Republicans have to say on what is called Imperialism; and then again the Republican currency plank may not be satisfactory. The same reasons apply to the Convention to be held at Kansas City." This action on the part of Mr. Peabody's committee has not been taken in an off-hand way, but in obedience to the rising opinion of the independent voters of the country. Six months ago, nothing seemed less likely than a third-party movement originating in the embers of the Palmer and Buckner movement of 1896. Now nothing seems more natural. That the Anti-Imperialist League, whose headquarters are in Chicago, will give very respectful attention to the proposed Indianapolis Convention, we do not doubt, although nobody can speak for that organization at the present time. Probably a conference of its members will be held for the purpose of deciding what action should be taken soon after the Kansas City Convention adjourns.

There is no reason to doubt the current story that a strong effort will be made, not only by Eastern Democrats, but also by the more sensible Bryanites of the South and West, to minimize the importance of silver in the Kansas City platform. The effort will be to secure a reaffirmation of the Chicago platform, which will satisfy the free-coinage men that silver has not been dropped as an issue, and yet will convince sound-money men that there is no serious intention to push free coinage in case of Bryan's election. This is the sort of thing that is easier said than done. It would be hard enough to carry out such a policy under the most favorable circumstances—that is to say, if a man could be nominated who had no connection with the

Chicago platform. But Bryan means free coinage in 1900 as much as Cleveland meant tariff reform in 1892, and he has just taken pains to announce in a review article his uncompromising adherence to the old issue. Of course he cannot suddenly recant now, and even if he could be persuaded to lay less emphasis upon silver after getting the nomination than before, it would still be believed that he was at heart faithful to the cause. The only way for the party to cut loose from silver this year is to nominate a candidate who does not represent it, and who is ready to say that it is a dead issue, as Vallandigham said in 1870 of the position which the Democrats had up to that time taken regarding the reconstruction legislation as unconstitutional, null and void.

The *Tribune* published on Friday a Senatorial symposium on the achievements of Congress during the session which had just closed. All the Senators interviewed take a glowing view of their good deeds, and hold that the country ought to be grateful to them. Senator Allison points out that "the financial bill has settled the money standard, and the character and volume of our currency, which cannot be changed except by the concurrent action of both houses of Congress and the President, and has contributed largely to the prosperity we have and are likely to have in the future." There is a semblance of truth in this saying, but the financial bill would not be Allisonian if it were not susceptible of two or more interpretations. The measure passed by Congress, which was the Senate bill, does not change the pre-existing law as regards the standard of value: The gold standard was adopted in express terms in 1873. For that very reason the law then passed was called by its opponents the "crime of 1873," and their aim ever since has been to repeal it. The act to which Senator Allison refers confirms and reiterates the pre-existing law. In doing so it renders a great service because it quiets public opinion. It conveys to the public ear more than it actually accomplishes. But it leaves open a door of escape for all dodgers if the bill should be seriously attacked by the Bryanites, for in that event Mr. Allison could say that he and his colleagues had done nothing but reaffirm a pre-existing law, and make its execution a trifle more easy to the Secretary of the Treasury. The clause separating the currency functions of the Treasury from its duties as collector and disbursing officer of the revenues is a wise and statesmanlike measure, but it does not alter any principles or essentially change any law. The truth is, that the Senate bill was intended to "hit if it is a deer

and miss if it is a calf." It was much inferior to the House bill, but it will serve a good purpose, and the Republican party is entitled to the credit of it. Mr. Allison cannot be denied his share of the credit, but it is not the clean-cut, straightforward measure that the country expected, and even now thinks that it is.

Senator Allison has presented a statement concerning the appropriations made by Congress at this session. This statement is described as "carefully prepared"; and it is carefully prepared for popular consumption. It is calculated to convey the impression that our national affairs are managed with frugality. The appropriations, it is true, foot up about \$710,000,000; but this includes \$131,000,000 which is "incident to" the late war with Spain. A more correct description of this item would be "Expenses of trying to conquer the Philippine Islands." However, if we omit this little "incident," the ordinary appropriations amount to only \$578,000,000. This is about \$25,000,000 more than for this year, \$45,000,000 more than in 1899, and \$60,000,000 more than in 1897. It is \$50,000,000 more than was appropriated in 1898. Pensions call for about \$4,000,000 more, an amount which, according to Senator Allison, "simply represents the natural increase of the pension roll." The navy calls for \$7,000,000 more, which is absolutely necessary in order to put the navy in the condition "universally demanded by the people for the national defence." So the increased appropriation for the Department of Agriculture is "only a proper compliance with the natural demands of the agricultural interests." We might add that increased appropriations are generally in compliance with the natural demands of some interest. The increased appropriation for the Post-Office, nearly \$18,000,000, is because of the natural demands for shorter hours and higher pay made by the employees, and for postage-at less than cost by various interests.

The hollowness of the tremendous anti-Trust agitation in Congress is well illustrated by the dispatches of the New York *Tribune* from Washington. On Saturday week the greatest contempt for the attitude of the Democrats was expressed. They had voted against the Constitutional amendment with agonies of pain, and for the Interstate Commerce Bill with equal distress, thus reversing their position within twenty-four hours. Such transparent hypocrisy drew forth the severest condemnation from the *Tribune's* correspondent. But now came the Senate's turn, and the case assumed a very different aspect. The Democratic

Senators actually proposed to put the Republicans' bill on the statute-book. They were so reckless as to make an insincere and belated effort to rush the measure through without even the safeguard of consideration in committee. What is worse, they were actuated in this by such an unworthy motive as the desire to make "campaign capital." Anxious as the Republicans have shown themselves to relieve the people from the tyranny of Trusts, they cannot consent to let it be done from any base motive. They are as reluctant as Falstaff was to give a reason upon compulsion; and their sincerity is equal to his.

Congress wriggled out of its deadlock on the armor-plate question in what is now getting to be its characteristic fashion—leaving the whole thing to the "discretion" of an executive officer. So momentous a matter as the Government's going into the manufacture of armor-plate is entirely turned over to Secretary Long for decision. If he cannot get what he needs from private manufacturers at a "reasonable" price, he is to start a factory of his own, and Congress puts \$4,000,000 at his disposal to begin on. We have no doubt that Mr. Long will settle the thing wisely. Probably the corporations which make armor-plate, and which Senators of both parties denounced as conscienceless robbers, will conclude to be "reasonable," and give the navy its desired armor without making an outrageous or unconscionable profit. But, just the same, the method is vicious. It represents a dangerous departure from the historic jealousy and watchfulness of a representative assembly with power of the purse. No expenditure of public money without specific appropriation and detailed warrant, has been the watchword of representative government. Confiding in the "discretion" of an executive officer to do what is "reasonable" is the way in which dictators are made. Napoleon III. had such vague grants of power from the Corps Législatif, and Diaz has made himself master of Mexico by a like subservience of Congress. Secretary Long is the least likely tyrant we can think of, and, as we say, he will doubtless arrange the affair discreetly and well; but, none the less, the power given to him is one which Congress should never have abdicated.

It is a nice question whether the Republicans hurt or helped themselves by refusing to take up the Ship-Subsidy Bill in the recent session of Congress. They did not defeat the bill; they merely put it over. This leaves them in the attitude of being "willing to wound, and yet afraid to strike." Opponents of subsidies will be apt to say, "If you carry the next election, you will pass the bill; therefore, we will do our best to pre-

vent you from carrying it." And how will the case stand with the long-suffering ship-owners? How will they feel when assessed just once more to save the country and get a subsidy? Well, if we were ship-owners, we should be very angry, and justly so, at the way we had been treated. Steadily promised, subsidies for four years; in party platforms, Presidential messages, and private agreements with Hanna, and not one dollar voted us yet! Must we buy you again?

Mr. Platt is quite justified in regarding his success in making Hazel, the Buffalo representative of his machine, judge of a United States District Court for life as "the greatest victory of his political career." He rightly regards it as his own work. President McKinley was only his secretary in making the nomination; Senator Depew was only his echo in endorsing it; the rest of his associates were only lay figures in confirming his act, according to the law of "Senatorial courtesy." Nor was it merely the greatest victory of Platt's career when he secured first the nomination and then the unanimous confirmation of an unfit man as judge, of a high court, against the vigorous opposition of an independent press and the earnest protest of the most weighty organized body of lawyers in the country. Neither Croker nor Hill ever won so signal a success in lowering the standard of the bench. Hill tried it when he had the Democrats of this State nominate Judge Maynard for the Court of Appeals after his discreditable share in stealing the State Senate had been exposed, but the people rejected his candidate by an overwhelming majority. Croker sought to rebuke independence on the bench by refusing Judge Daly the reelection which he deserved, and was himself rebuked through the rejection of his party's candidate for Governor because of this assault upon the judiciary. Platt has "landed" his man, and he comes home to be treated as a statesman who should be consulted as to the administration of State affairs by the civil-service reformer who was elected Governor two years ago.

After months, even years, of persistent and heroic fighting on the battlefields and in the lobbies of Congress, Gens. Miles and Corbin have succeeded in getting their greatly desired and quite unearned promotions to Lieutenant-General and Major-General, respectively. After every straightforward attempt to pass a bill for this purpose had failed utterly, the legislative trick of attaching a rider to the Military Academy Bill succeeded in the last hours of the session, when opposition might have meant the defeat of this important appropriation measure. While there are some sentimental grounds for conferring upon Gen. Joseph Wheeler the Brigadier-Generalship in

the regular army which he received as the very substantial reward for his subordinate work before Santiago and his holiday trip to the Philippines, no arguments can be brought out which will make the advancement of Corbin and Miles other than a most severe blow to what little there is left of the merit system in the army. It serves notice on every young officer that the true way to high rank is by the path of the politician, of the Washington bureaucrat, and of the unblushing seeker of easy positions in the vicinity of high personages, and will correspondingly discourage every officer who strives to rise by attention to duty and by devotion and self-sacrifice in the field. But Gen. Miles does not become a real commander. Instead of that, he remains merely an idle, titled figure-head, without influence or weight in service matters, while his subordinate usurps his position and powers by favor of the President.

Gen. Otis, safely landed on his native soil, continues to assert that the Philippine rebellion is "over," and everything lovely; but the same news association that gives out his jaunty optimism also sends a cablegram from Manila which belies it. Judge Taft learns from "high army officers" on the spot that "a larger army is necessary" to crush Gen. Otis's non-existent rebellion. Nearly all of the provincial officials and the presidents of municipalities over whom Professor Worcester gushed so effusively, have proved "treacherous," while the corruption of the native police and other public officials in Manila is strongly suspected. Moreover, the question what to do with the friars is more thorny than ever, Archbishop Chapelle taking the strange ground that the Catholic Church is entitled, under the Treaty of Paris, to the support of the United States Government in maintaining all its property rights in the Philippines. We had supposed that when the Catholic authorities learned from Lodge's speech that they had "robbed" the people, the lands held in mortmain would at once be surrendered. But they are holding on, and doing their obstinate best to add to those perplexities and difficulties of the Philippine problem which the new Commissioners confess to finding "well-nigh staggering."

It is argued that the decision of the Appellate Court in the Second Department, affirming the power of the Brooklyn Democratic General Committee to expel a disobedient member, does not necessarily go to the extent of prohibiting independent voting in municipal elections. The Primary Election Law declares that no association of citizens for the election of city officers shall be deemed a political party, nor shall membership in such association prevent an elec-

tor from enrolling as a member of a political party. It is possible to infer from this that the law would recognize the right of an elector to follow his pledges to the association for city elections, even if they conflicted with the policy and rules of his party. This question, however, was not considered by the Appellate Court. What is plain is, that the law does not recognize associations for city elections as legal entities, and that no one can be refused admission to a party because he belongs to such an association. The test of admission is the declaration of an intention to support at the next general election, State or national, the nominees of the party for State or national offices. This leaves the ordinary elector free to vote as he pleases in city elections; but the position of a member of a party committee is somewhat different. A very general profession of faith is sufficient to secure admission to membership in the Presbyterian Church; but several recent trials have shown that higher standards are required of the clergy. No one will maintain that party discipline could be maintained if the members of general committees allied themselves with independent movements; and the principle underlying the Primary Election Law is that party organizations are legal, and therefore capable of enforcing discipline.

The matter is of so much importance as to justify more detailed reference to the opinion of the court, which was written by Judge Goodrich. He reviews the steps by which party committees, which were until very recently voluntary associations, have been made political corporations. He points out that the intention of the Legislature has clearly been to make the General Committee the instrument for conducting, supervising, and carrying out the plans and purposes of its party and the election of its candidates for office. In every body of this character, "there is power inherent, aside from statute, to make rules essential for its own protection and existence, and the statute in question confirms the exercise of such power in providing for the making of rules and regulations." These rules are known to every candidate for election to the General Committee, and it is to be assumed that he is voted for in accordance with such rules. Any other assumption would defeat the plain purpose of primary elections. The Court further observes that there is no analogy between an elective office in a public body, like a Common Council, and the position of a member of a party committee. The holder of the former office is chosen to represent the whole people in a deliberative and executive body, and he has the right of voting therein upon questions coming before it as his judgment and conscience may dictate. But even in such bodies

there are rules, for disobeying which members are expelled. On the case before it the decision of the Court seems to be justified; but unfortunately the rules and regulations actually adopted were not before it. Hence the important question involved would not be finally adjudicated on appeal. It must be determined in another proceeding; but the present decision shows how much the primary-election laws have increased the power of the party machines.

The Republican Committee in Lebanon County, Pa., recently adopted a resolution to the effect that all candidates for Congress or the Legislature must sign a pledge to attend the party caucuses and abide by their decisions. Several persons who desired to register as candidates for nomination at the primary meetings, but who declined to give this pledge, were refused registration. The court, however, granted a mandamus compelling the committee to register their names. It was contended, for the Committee, that the doctrine of majority rule should apply. The resolution, it was urged, amounted only to a recognition of this rule. It must be admitted that this position is correct, according to the theory which would make party organizations constituent elements in our government. On this theory a Republican County Committee is a legislative body, and no Legislature can act except under the principle of majority rule. But the Pennsylvania court declined to accept the logical implications of the new theory. It took the position that when a citizen was elected to the State Legislature, he became, on taking the oath of office, a representative of the whole people, and ceased to be the representative of a party. Hence the signing of a pledge committing him in advance to the support of measures which he might regard as prejudicial to the public welfare, would be inconsistent with his Constitutional duty. Accordingly, the court compelled the Committee to register the names of the candidates who had declared their independence of party dictation. The result may be demoralizing to party discipline, but it is favorable to good government.

There can be no doubt that the Dowager-Empress of China has stirred up the antagonism to foreigners in the maritime provinces. Last December the *North China Herald* published the text of a secret edict issued by the Empress and addressed to the viceroys of the territory into which the Germans, French, and English have lately gone. In this she took a bold tone. The Empire was threatened with serious difficulties. "The various Powers cast upon us looks of tiger-like voracity, hustling each other in their endeavors to be the first to seize upon our innermost territories." This

aggression was due, said the Empress, to the belief of foreign nations that China would "never venture to go to war with them." But, she added, "They fail to understand that there are certain things which this Empire can never consent to; and that, if hard pressed, we have no alternative but to rely upon the justice of our cause." We may well believe, then, that it is the Empress who is now openly encouraging those anti-foreign marauders, the "Boxers," whose fanatic zeal drives them into armed conflict with the forces of the European Powers.

That the resulting situation is most grave in its possibilities of danger is evident. The chief difficulty will be, we believe, to unite the various Powers in a common policy. Suspensions of Russia and her "espérances ultérieures" is too strong on the part of both England and Japan to make coöperation easy. The recent success of M. Pavloff in getting Masampo harbor away from Japan has left that ambitious nation very sore. Even in England, absorbed as she is by her gigantic efforts in South Africa, the incident provoked much angry discussion, and was regarded as a new proof of Russian perfidy. The apparent breach of faith lies in the fact that Russia made in 1886 a "sincere promise" to the Chinese Government that, "if the British would evacuate Port Hamilton, the Russian Government would not occupy Korean territory under any circumstances whatever." Nevertheless, Russia has just acquired the finest Korean harbor, exactly abreast of Japan, who herself was trying to get it. With the Russian Government thus steadily and remorselessly pursuing its secular policy of absorption of North China and control of the Yellow Sea, it will be hard to keep other nations from fearing that she is ready to fish in the troubled waters. Meanwhile, the duty of our Government is simple. We must, so far as possible, protect American citizens in China, who are there under treaty rights. If the Chinese Government confesses itself unable to suppress internal disorder, we must join the other Powers, not in attempting to reform or govern China, but in trying to rescue our own countrymen from the fury of an irresponsible mob. The temptation will be to take part in some gorgeous scheme for partition of territory. Secretary Hay's Chinese negotiation distinctly reserved to the United States a free hand in that regard. We observe that Congressman Hitt expects a break-up of the Chinese Empire, and a division of its territory among "live" nations, presumably including our own. But we do not apprehend that Mr. McKinley, with the Philippine wolf on his hands, which he would be so glad to let go if he dared, will clutch a Chinese dragon to add to his embarrassments, nor does Philippine propinquity facilitate a demonstration in force.

THE RECORD OF CONGRESS.

It is almost thirty years since the conditions for effective legislative work, during the last half of a President's term, were so propitious as when Congress assembled on the 4th of December last. In the corresponding month of 1871, Grant sent his annual message to a Senate and House both of which were controlled by his party; but neither Grant in the latter half of his second term, nor Hayes, nor Arthur, nor Cleveland, in either of his terms, nor Harrison, was so fortunate. In other words, almost a generation had passed since an Administration was so happily situated as was Mr. McKinley's six months ago.

An ambitious programme was outlined at the opening of the session, but only a small part of it has been performed. One great achievement is to be set down to the credit of the Fifty-sixth Congress—the passage of the Gold-Standard Act. It marked the end of a contest which had raged with varying fortune for more than a quarter of a century, and it signalized the final triumph of sound financial principles. But the old financial controversy was disposed of by the 11th of February; and there was no limit to the session of Congress, while the custom in Presidential years has been not to adjourn until late in the summer or even in the autumn. There was consequently plenty of time for deliberate action on the other great issues which were presented by the President. The first recommendation in Mr. McKinley's message was a law to maintain the gold standard; the second, "wise and judicious action" in restraint of the evil of Trusts, such action to follow "the studied deliberation of the Congress," which he announced that he was "sure" it would receive. Instead of this result, the Republican managers in the House did nothing on the subject until the fag-end of the session, when they brought forward a proposition to amend the Constitution, the humbug of which was clearly exposed by Representative McCall of Massachusetts, one of the ablest Republican members; and a bill which they knew the Senate would not have a moment to consider. The whole treatment of this question has been nothing but a cheap effort to make party capital, which proved so transparent that few people can be deluded by it.

The first attempt to deal in a legislative way with "our new possessions" resulted in a dreadful muddle. The President urgently advised the immediate organization of a government for Porto Rico, and the most liberal treatment of the island in the matter of trade. "Our plain duty," he told Congress, "is to abolish all customs tariffs between the United States and Porto Rico and give her products free access to our markets." This was at the beginning of December. Not until almost the middle of April was

any law passed, and that was one which imposed a tariff, and which contained so many arbitrary features that the Republican Chairman of the Committee on Insular Affairs in the party caucus protested against it as one which could not be defended upon the stump. Porto Rico could not be granted free trade, as a matter of principle, many Republicans in Congress contended, and then they passed a law which grants free trade to Hawaii! Hawaii, too, was more fortunate than Porto Rico in obtaining protection from the danger of a carpet-bagger plague. Alaska at last secured a little attention from Congress, and, after being in our possession more than thirty years, it has been provided with an organized government of a pretty arbitrary nature.

The Philippine problem is left where it was. "The future government of the Philippines rests with the Congress of the United States," said President McKinley in his message. President Schurman of the Philippine Commission had been most insistent that Congress should take action, pointing out that "the shrewd Filipinos" put no faith in the promises of his Commission, because they realized that only Congress could determine their political status. Senator Spooner of Wisconsin urged that at least Congress should pass a bill, which he introduced, that would formally vest the President by the authority of Congress with the dictatorial powers which he is exercising. He pleaded that "Congress ought to put this measure of authority behind the President"; that it "seems to be unjust" to leave it all to his war power. But Congress would not do even this. It simply shirked.

Shirked is also the word that describes the attitude of Congress towards the question of a reform in taxation. That the war taxes ought to be reduced was not disputed, but the question was put over till next winter. One good effect of this policy of shirk was the failure to push through the shipping-subsidy scheme at this session. Too many Republican Representatives from close districts dreaded the effect upon their personal fortunes of the passage of such a job by their party.

On the whole, this is not a review for a great party, secure in its possession of all branches of the Government, to be proud of. The Porto Rico muddle, the shirking of the Philippine issue, the demagogical treatment of the Trust question, and the neglect of important matters with no other excuse than that Hanna wanted the session ended early, go far to counterbalance the credit for the Gold-Standard Act—itsself rather an astute manoeuvre for the support of the moneyed classes in the Presidential election than a reasoned return to sound notions of finance and public credit.

CONCILIATION VS. STRIKES.

The city of St. Louis has been practically in the hands of a mob for five weeks in consequence of the failure of the public authorities to enforce the law. The Mayor of the city and the Governor of the State have been equally derelict in the performance of their sworn duty, and the consequence has been a series of outrages which have brought St. Louis not only into contempt, but into terror, and have made it a place to be avoided by the travelling public. The State of Missouri, like the other American commonwealths, has a force of citizen soldiers, organized, drilled, officered, provided with arms, ammunition, accoutrements, for the purpose of suppressing insurrections and enforcing the laws when the same are overborne by rioters. Yet not one soldier has been called out by the Governor, although murder has been repeatedly committed in the streets, and the grossest outrages have been perpetrated upon women who have ventured to ride in the street cars. Until Sunday, June 10, the killing and maiming were all on one side—the victims having been law-abiding citizens exclusively. On that day the posse comitatus summoned by the Sheriff got to work and fired on the rioters, killing four and wounding many others. Some of the injured were bystanders, drawn to the scene of disorder by curiosity or sympathy with the strikers.

Affairs have now reached a crisis where the Governor must act decisively, or the city will be in danger of conflagration and pillage. When he does act, he can act in only one way. He must enforce the laws as they stand on the statute-book. He has hitherto helped the rioters by doing nothing, but when he does something he must take the other side, and it will be to his interest to put down the insurrection as promptly as possible. After this is done, it will be well for all to consider some method of avoiding these direful outbreaks in the future. We have had similar experiences recently in Milwaukee and Cleveland, and there is now going on in Chicago a strike and a lockout in the building trade which is prevented from being a bloody turmoil only by the city Government surrendering to the Building Trades Council. There ought to be some more rational method of dealing with these perpetually recurring social phenomena.

The May number of the *Bulletin of the Department of Labor* (Carroll D. Wright, Commissioner) is of unusual interest at this time, in view of the desperate strikes in progress at St. Louis and Chicago. It contains a paper of 101 pages on "Voluntary Conciliation and Arbitration in Great Britain," by John Bruce McPherson, embracing a history of the great engineering strike, the coal strike, the strikes in the boot and shoe,

and in the hosiery, the lace, the iron, and several other trades, which have taken place in recent years, and which were finally settled by conciliation or arbitration or both. The marked feature of all these struggles was that they entailed a vast deal of suffering and loss upon both employers and employed, and were finally adjusted on principles which might have been just as easily agreed to in the beginning, without any kind of strife.

The outcome of the experience gained has been the adoption by voluntary action in nearly all the trades, and in almost all the industrial centres, of certain rules to be applied in all cases of dispute between employers and workmen. The first is, that certain persons shall be chosen as conciliators, to constitute a permanent board, representing both sides in equal numbers, ready to take up and consider any case of dispute at any time. The second rule is, that, while they are considering the question or questions referred to them, the work shall proceed on the pre-existing basis. The third is, that, in the event of failure of the board of conciliation to reach an agreement, they may (not must) call in the services of an umpire, whose decision shall be final, if both sides unite in appointing him. The shoe trade has a standing umpire, and has also a certain sum of money deposited as a forfeit in case of any refusal to obey the umpire's decision. The boards of conciliation seldom fail to come to an agreement, and therefore seldom need the services of an umpire. The New Zealand system of compulsory arbitration is not favored in England by either masters or men.

It is agreed on all hands that many strikes have been averted by the boards of conciliation. They have created and fostered respect and good feeling between employers and workmen. The two meet each other as friends, and not as enemies. The workmen believe the statements made to them, because the facts relating to the business are open to expert accountants employed by them, and can be ascertained without any chance of error. There have been cases where a threatened strike was averted without a meeting of the board of conciliation, merely by convincing the men that the state of the trade, the cost of production, and the prices of the finished product did not warrant an advance of wages.

The testimony of a large number of persons representing both wage-earners and employers is cited by Mr. McPherson to show that the system is satisfactory to both. Mr. T. Burt, M.P., a representative of the coal-miners, said he wanted conciliation first of all, with arbitration in the background, so that, if conciliation fails, the differences may be settled in some more rational method than the strike or lockout. The Chair-

man of the Iron and Steel Conciliation Board of the North of England, speaking from twenty-five years' experience, said that the coming together of masters and men had almost eliminated partisan speeches, and that the workmen's representatives came to the meetings determined to do what was right, in spite of the operatives who sent them. "The conciliation board has become an element of education. The two sides wanted to enlighten each other, to understand each other, believe each other, and to discuss matters and lay open their minds fully." Mr. R. Spence Watson said that the moral value of conciliation is enormous. "The fact that masters and men meet around the same table on the same level and with the opportunity of ascertaining each other's standpoint, of giving and taking an argument, and of ultimately being swayed by reasonable considerations, is of great value."

The number of the *Bulletin* which contains this information ought to have the widest possible circulation. What has been done in England to minimize strikes and lockouts may be done here, if the spirit of conciliation can once be awakened, and we think of nothing more likely to awaken it than the perusal of this plain narrative.

MAYOR VAN WYCK'S POSITION.

The careful opinion rendered by Judge Dillon to Comptroller Coler, in the matter of the American Ice Company, may not silence the whoops of the sensational press, but it will convince intelligent people of the folly of newspaper prosecutions. There is no higher authority than Judge Dillon on municipal law, and when he states that, as a general principle, ownership of stock in a corporation does not carry with it responsibility for the acts of the directors of the corporation, and that the principle applies even when the stockholder is a municipal officer, it is certainly not improbable that the courts will take the same view. So far as the general principle is concerned, a little reflection will satisfy most people that the application of any other rule would be attended with startling consequences. The number of persons owning stock in one company or another must be expressed in millions; every one who has much property, it might almost be said, is interested, directly or indirectly, in some corporation. If they were all responsible for all the contracts made by the directors of these concerns, the situation would be absurd and intolerable. No one would know at any moment that he was not guilty of some offence or other, and the imputation of sin would be as extensive at law as in theology.

The illustrations employed by Judge Dillon are certainly impressive. He shows that the city is obliged to have contracts with numberless transporta-

tion companies for the use of wharves and streets, and that the newspaper construction of the law would make it possible for any city officer to render these contracts voidable by purchasing some of the stock of the corporations, parties to them. A large part of the vast business of transporting passengers might thus be clouded with illegality. Any city officer, on learning of the execution of a contract with any corporation, might vitiate it by buying a share of stock in Wall Street. It is conceivable that the representatives of one corporation, when a city contract had been awarded to a rival, might "hang it up" by inducing some petty official to purchase some of the stock of the successful concern. Worse things than that have been done by many a city officer in the past. While it may be said that such practices are not likely to occur, yet a construction of the law which would permit of such complications is not likely to be sustained by the courts, if a more rational construction is possible; and that it is possible, appears from Judge Dillon's opinion.

The employment, meanwhile, of the judicial machinery of the State in a prosecution instigated by certain newspaper proprietors constitutes an innovation in our jurisprudence, and the calling upon persons suspected of wrongdoing to prove themselves innocent, or to confess their guilt, has been attended in this case with the results which caused it to be discarded in England. As our people plainly observed when they were regarding the mote in the French eye, at the time of the Dreyfus trial, the inducement to prevarication is very strong. The accused person has to admit certain facts; but he is able to introduce a good many fictions. According to the maxim, *falsus in uno, falsus in omnibus*, the whole of the evidence of a lying witness is discredited. But according to the Continental system, which the tyranny of the Trusts is compelling us to introduce in our jurisprudence, the public, if not the court, is at liberty to accept whatever testimony confirms its suspicions of guilt, and reject all that establishes innocence. This prerogative it will certainly exercise in the case of Mayor Van Wyck. He has been forced to testify against himself; but his testimony in his own favor will be received with incredulity.

Certainly it is not intrinsically probable that Mayor Van Wyck was ignorant that Mr. Morse was President of the Ice Company; that he was ignorant that the company was to sell ice to the city of New York; that he took a trip to Maine with Mr. Morse and Mr. Carroll early in May, and sailed up and down the Penobscot River for pleasure, and without thinking much about the ice company in which he had 5,000 shares of stock. It is not very credible that he never thought that this city was a large consumer of

ice; that he knew nothing concerning the arrangements between the ice company and the Department of Docks; that he was not aware that some of his political associates were large owners of stock in the company. Nor is it easy to believe that his account of the manner in which he acquired his stock is altogether accurate or complete. For the amount of cash that he furnished, he certainly received an intolerable deal of stock, unless it was believed by the managers of the company that it would be advantageous that the Mayor should be a large stockholder.

Were it possible to look at this testimony by itself, without taking cognizance of the character of our government, and without reference to our municipal history, the case against the Mayor would be very feeble. Up to this point no proof has been given that the officers of the city have granted especial favors to the American Ice Company. It was generally supposed that it enjoyed exclusive privileges on the wharves of the city, but the evidence so far obtained is to the contrary. On the face of the proceedings, the Mayor would seem to have been speculating rather recklessly, with the aid of some very liberal friends, in a stock which is now worth less than he paid or agreed to pay for it. It does not affirmatively appear that he used his official position to secure contracts or privileges for this company, that it proved advantageous to the company to have him as a stockholder, or advantageous to him to be one. From a purely legal point of view, all that has been established is that the Mayor has been speculating in the stock of an odious corporation; which is hardly official malfeasance.

But from a moral point of view the case is different. Every one knows how the city is governed; that it is impossible to do business with it on a large scale without submitting to some form of blackmail. The protection extended by the police to all sorts of illegal establishments is notorious. No amount of evidence would convince this community that such a corporation as the American Ice Company, having many stockholders who belong to the controlling party, does not somehow enjoy special facilities for carrying on its business, or that its competitors do not meet with special difficulties. Some men who have been mayors would have been believed had they testified to their own innocence, but Mayor Van Wyck's reputation is not sufficient to clear him. Were he personally esteemed he might fare better; but even then he would be regarded as one member of an organization whose end it is to make a profit out of the administration of the government. So long as that organization is intrusted with power by the people of this city, so long will its members secretly or openly work for this end. If they did not use their places

for the benefit of the favorites of the Boss, he would find others who would be more subservient.

CIVIL-SERVICE PENSIONS.

One of the most remarkable steps in the gradual restoration of privilege that have taken place in modern times is the demand for the payment of pensions to the officers of government. At the time of the Revolution, one of the popular complaints against the British Government was that it was so lavish in this respect. Such misapplication of revenue derived from taxing the people was sternly condemned as an aristocratic abuse, and as incompatible with the austere virtue that should prevail in the government of a republic. The reckless enthusiasm aroused by war, it is true, overcame all our objections to military pensions, and the lavishness with which they have been given was not surpassed even in the days when Sulla apportioned among his soldiers the possessions of his enemies. Nevertheless, Congress has hitherto revolted at the suggestion of civil pensions. It has been demonstrated that there are a number of superannuated clerks in the bureaus at Washington whom no one dares to dismiss, but who render no useful service, and it has been proposed to retire them on pensions. But Congress will not listen to the proposal.

Probably this conservatism is due partly to the traditional hostility to civil pensions, but the chief reason of it is that Congress shrinks appalled from the prospect which would be opened were a beginning made. The awful abuses of the existing pension system are borne with singular patience by the people; but if they had to support a horde of retired clerks and postmasters, the burden might be too much for their endurance. At all events, Congress has hitherto rejected all suggestions for pensioning civil employees, and there are no signs at present that it will change its policy. It is possible that, as tenure of office becomes more permanent, the feeling of Congress may change; but even then it will be thought that a man who has received a salary for many years from the Government, ought to have made some provision for supporting himself in his old age.

In several of the States, however, the Legislature has listened to the advocates of civil pensions, and there are signs that the pressure to secure them will soon become serious. An association of persons holding office under the Government of New York has lately been formed, with the avowed object of procuring the passage of laws which shall secure to every officer who has served twenty-five years a pension amounting to one-half of his salary. Nearly 3,500 persons have already joined this league, and as there are 40,000 in this city and 20,000

in other parts of the State who are eligible, it is evident that an irresistible pressure can be exerted on such a body as the New-York Legislature. The members of that body are generally anxious to propitiate every organization that controls votes, and if the civil employees choose to form such an organization, they can probably obtain whatever they demand from the Legislature. The policemen of this city have several times procured increased salaries by the customary methods of assessment and employing lobby-men at Albany, and their example is easily followed.

It is unfortunate that this aspect of the pension question is the one which we must first consider. As the Pennsylvania Railroad Company and many other great corporations have shown, there is nothing unbusinesslike in the systematic payment of retiring pensions. Judging from experience, however, there would be nothing businesslike in such a pension system as our Legislature would develop. The system of pensioning policemen in this city is altogether indefensible. The pension fund has been in existence nineteen years, and there are 1,900 pensioners; while the active force is about 7,500. The sum of \$880,000 was paid to these pensioners last year, and nearly \$340,000 was paid to retired firemen. Of late, police surgeons have succeeded in securing pensions, and the widows of policemen are pensioned in increasing numbers. Comparatively few of these pensions are paid because of disability, and very many pensioners are in active business. Mr. McCullagh, the Superintendent of Elections, draws a salary of \$5,000 a year from the State, while he receives \$3,000 as retired Chief of Police. What additional sum he has received for managing the Police Department in Havana will perhaps be known when the accounts of our Cuban Government are honestly audited.

The injustice of pensioning the officers of Government is keenly felt by persons of equal capacity and merit who are in private employ. Mr. Coler has recently explained to us that the increase of \$15,000,000 in the expense of carrying on the affairs of the enlarged city is chiefly due to the payment to large numbers of officers of much higher salaries than they had been receiving. Such increases, of course, create a privileged class, and it will be very unjust to add pensions to the existing largesses. As a rule the officers of Government are paid more for their work than ordinary citizens receive. This is too notorious to admit of argument, and yet it is the chief cause of political corruption. Were the emoluments of public service no greater than those of private business, there would be no inducement for politicians to follow their trade. They intend to get easy places at the expense of the public, and in this State they succeed to an alarming and oppressive extent. To pension

them at the age of forty-five or fifty, or even sixty, would be to throw the support of a large class of unproductive people on the industrious members of society, and to establish as unjust a privilege as exists in any aristocracy.

There are in some of the States laws for the pensioning of public-school teachers which do not require the expense to be borne by the public. The teachers are allowed to assess themselves and to pay pensions from the fund thus created, the State acting as financial agent. These laws are, in some cases at least, certain to result in disappointment and to cause cruel injustice. They are based on the mutual-assessment principle which has in recent years been so disastrously misapplied. The school-teachers' pension fund in Chicago has lately been examined by an actuary, and found to be utterly insolvent. About 6,000 persons have been contributing to this fund, expecting to receive a pension amounting to half their salary on retiring. There is now an impairment of over \$600,000, and those who supposed that they would get a pension of \$600 a year find that \$25 is all that they can hope for. Nothing is more certain than life-insurance when scientifically managed; nothing is more ruinous when undertaken by incompetent and ignorant persons.

THE WAR AND ENGLISH POLITICS.

With Lord Roberts in Pretoria, and the South African war regarded as nearing its end, the burning question in English public life has become, Will Parliament be dissolved this year? Talk of an immediate general election was a good deal heard after the by-election in the Isle of Wight, a month ago, when the Conservative majority was doubled. To Mr. Chamberlain and the Young Tories the prospect of getting the country to "vote khaki," without the need of any definite programme or party promises, was highly inviting. Then, when the Manchester election came along three weeks ago, and showed a Conservative majority increased from 78 to more than 2,000, a strong element of the party was wild for speedy dissolution. What a splendid chance to get a majority of 200 or so in the next Parliament! All that would be necessary would be to clap the electors on the back and hurrah loudly for "Bobs" and "B-P.," and the thing would be done.

"I wonder what Chamberlain is driving at—a dissolution?" This is the question asked by a member of the Cabinet the other day, when the uncommonly conciliatory attitude of the Colonial Secretary in the Australian business was observed. Since then, and following up the Manchester triumph, Mr. Chamberlain has almost openly organized a "boom" for an early dissolution. It is one proof more of his "smartness," in

the sense of the American politician. Why not go to the country when in its present jovial mood, and while the Liberals are disorganized, and get another lease of power for six years? The fact that most of the power would fall to the man responsible for the war, and possibly make him Prime Minister, does not diminish Mr. Chamberlain's eagerness to strike while khaki's the only wear. Not a word would he need to speak about his famous "social programme," now for ever shelved. The election would be just one splurge about glory and gallantry and the new laurels of Empire, and the Liberals would be nowhere. So reasons "pushful Joe."

But there are two powerful sections of the Conservative party opposed to his plan. One of them is as willing as he to reap a political advantage from the war, but maintains that it would be indecent to dissolve in July. These Tory leaders contend that they must wait till the war is well over, and then go to the country on the terms of settlement. They would have the general election come off in November—not too far away from the war to have lost its prestige, yet far enough not to be open to the charge of sharp practice in scrambling greedily to reap the fruits of victory; while submission of the settlement to the sense of the electors would be more in line with party traditions. Lord Salisbury, however, is believed to be against this proposal, as well as against Chamberlain's. He considers it undignified to rush the electors, and improper to go to the country for instructions how to settle the war. His plan is—and it is, no doubt, the traditional and correct one—for the Government quietly to carry the whole thing through, and then ask the constituencies to pass judgment upon the completed transaction. Such is confidently alleged to be the attitude of the Premier, and that it really is seems fairly to be implied in a sentence in Lord Salisbury's speech to the London Conservatives week before last. He said: "We are not at the end of the war, and, even if we were, the time would hardly have come when it would be safe to prophesy the precise course which the policy of her Majesty's Government will take."

As for the historical precedents, all those of recent years are against dissolution before 1901. Parliament has yet two years to run, and no Prime Minister of modern times, with a united Cabinet, has dissolved before the sixth year of his Parliament, unless defeated in the Commons or in the Lords. It has not been considered wise to allow a Parliament to extend to its full legal term of seven years. Questions might arise in its last months with which it was wholly unfitted to deal; and so it has come about that dissolution in the sixth year is the unwritten law of the British Constitution. Gladstone observed the rule in 1874, and so did Disraeli in 1880.

The latter was strongly urged in 1878, when he came back in triumph from Berlin, and all England was ringing with his name, to dissolve at once and intrench himself in power. But he refused to violate precedent, and went to disastrous defeat in 1880. Mr. Chamberlain is said to be much impressed by Disraeli's failure to catch the flowing tide, and to be resolved to make no such blunder himself. His motto is, "Let who will be correct if I may be successful." His present influence in Conservative counsels is such that, according to the best opinion in political circles, he is likely to have his way, so far as to fix the general election no later than November. We shall get light on the subject when Parliament reassembles, as it does to-day.

With the Liberals in their present demoralized condition, it must be said that the Conservatives seem sure of winning whenever they decide to make their appeal to the electors. Mr. Balfour was not too wide of the mark when he said jocosely the other night that the Liberal organization was a fine one, deserving of all respect, and that all it lacked was a leader and some principles. Lord Rosebery may get up an issue on radical army reform and unite the party again behind him for the time being, drawing off also some of the Conservatives who think Salisbury too old-fogey in his Imperialism; but it is impossible to imagine the English Liberals, with their history and traditions, long following such a leadership with such a programme. In the end, they will pull themselves together and find a leader who will know how to recreate the old enthusiasm for domestic reform and democratic progress. The Liberals have been terribly beaten before, yet have rallied. In 1885 the *London Times* spoke of "the irremediable disruption and hopeless disorganization of the Liberal party, with its high historic past." Yet it has been in power twice since then. For its low estate in 1885 the *Times* said that "the Liberals have to thank Mr. Chamberlain"! Having thus wrecked the Liberal party, he may yet perform the same kindly office for the Conservatives.

AUSTRIAN ANTI-SEMITISM.

VIENNA, May 24, 1900.

After the Dreyfus case and the endless brawling of the French thereover, one does not expect to find a country in which Anti-Semitism has reached a lower level than in France. Yet Austria is such a country. The end is not quite the same. To the various political, social, and business elements which contribute to French Anti-Semitism, Austria, in default of a high-treason trial, adds another—a burning desire on the part of a considerable section of the people "to defend Christianity and to Christianize the Jew."

As in France, so in Austria, the capital

is the chief seat of Anti-Semitism. There it introduces itself to the new-comer at once and in every class of society. The restaurant-keeper hands him *Kikeriki*, a sheet of political doggerel, once Liberal, but now, coarsely Anti-Semitic. His landlord tells him that the public lectures of Nothnagel, the Dean of the Medical Faculty of the University, are reported in the papers only because Nothnagel is a Jew (he is in fact a Protestant), and because the press is all for the Jews. The Jew-baiting politician puts over the gate of his country-seat the sign, "Dogs and Jews forbidden to enter" (*Hunden und Juden ist der Eintritt nicht gestattet*). The apothecary, hearing Heine called a notable poet, sniffs out contemptuously, "Heine! A mere Jew!" Heine, indeed, comes in for so large a share of obloquy that when (May 1, 1900) the 'Harzreise' was to undergo a sort of theatrical production, an Anti-Semitic paper demanded that Christians should not endure this honor to Heine, and it was found necessary to place policemen throughout the hall that the performance might not be disturbed. Thus is all Jewry lashed over Heine's shoulders.

Fortunately for the Jews, those who would feel ostracism most deeply are able to conquer it in one of two ways. So many are rich enough to force their way into the upper circles that the Jew plays a very much more important part in Austrian than in American society. He may even marry and give in marriage among the aristocracy—if he will be baptized. But even more potent than his wealth is the marvellous intellectual competency of the European Jew. "Therein," says an Austrian friend, "lies the difference between our treatment of Jews and your treatment of negroes. The Jew can take care of himself, but the negro is a child for whose well-being and progress you whites are responsible." "Mainly in Jewish circles will you find intelligent Austrian women," said an Austrian Christian to me. Again, "Nearly every notable Austrian journalist is of Jewish blood." In sober truth, the number of men of Jewish blood occupying positions in which intelligence is the chief requisite, is astounding, and has, not without cause, awakened in the breast of the easy-going Viennese a fear that he will soon not only be outstripped, but pushed to the wall. He thinks himself forced, therefore, to try measures of repression; for instance, to prevent the Jews from Hebraizing certain institutions—one might almost say certain branches of learning. When Weidel, the head of the First Chemical Institute, died in 1899, the only available man of sufficient prestige to fill his place was the Jew Goldschmidt. But since Lieben, the head of the Second Chemical Institute, was also a Jew, Goldschmidt was told that he could have the place only if he would be baptized. He refused, and in May, 1900, the place is still vacant.

Such cases, in which social and religious abhorrence becomes real persecution, are common. They range from the stupendous to the petty. For example, a theatre has been founded (the Kaiser-Jubeläums-Stadt Theater) in which no Jewish actors or employees, and no plays written by Jews, may appear. Furthermore, in defiance of Austrian custom, every spectator is forced to buy a programme, and to buy it within the theatre; this in order that the Jewish peddlers who sell theatre programmes on the

streets may lose the few poor kreuzers they formerly earned. Under such circumstances one cannot wonder that apostasy is common. The Jewish *privat-docent*, for instance, feels in most cases that he can gain the desired professorship only by abandoning the faith of his fathers and giving a nominal adhesion to the Roman Church. That is perhaps the most terrible feature of it all—this fostering of a traffic in religion.

Naturally, private endeavor has not stamped out the Jewish pest. Recourse is therefore had to political measures. The party now dominant in Vienna, the Christian Socialist party, evolved from the brain of Dr. Lueger, Bürgermeister of Vienna, and Representative in the Landtag and in the Reichsrath, is dedicated to this end. Some years ago, Lueger, not then in office, said, "Only a rascal or a fool can become an Anti-Semite." He himself belongs to the first class. His really notable talents he has employed in the service of every party that would forward his personal ambition. Now safely lodged in the highest municipal office, he concentrates his activity on Anti-Semitism, hoping that, by thus pandering to the well-known inclinations of the royal family, he may gain a seat in the Ministry. Under his control the Vienna Gemeinderath (Common Council) is a mere whip for lashing Jews. The present Gemeinderath is more stupidly vicious than the Chicago Board of Aldermen. Those who know, say that the English of "Hinky-Dink" and "Bath-House John" is a pure and elegant style when compared to the German of the majority acting in the Gemeinderath under Lueger's orders. Certain it is that heads would be broken if the epithets bandied about here were ever heard in an American Council-room. Interrupting a speaker with "Keep quiet, you pig of a Jew!" (*Ruhig, Sau-Jude!*) is one of the mildest methods used to silence the Liberal minority. If the Liberal speaker cannot so be silenced, the Herr Bürgermeister, from his chair of state, will find that his honor has been sullied, and will dismiss the offender for a week or more. In one sitting, when the Liberals protested vigorously against some unfairness on Lueger's part, four were sent out, like whipped school-boys, within ten minutes. Even the press gallery is not free, and for a long time the representatives of the *Neue Freie Presse*, the best paper in Vienna, were excluded from the gallery because the editor had commented unfavorably on the Lueger régime.

Over his own party, in which he is without exaggeration the only man of education or talent, Lueger's rule is absolute. That he has not achieved more than he has is indeed a wonderful testimony to the futility of persecution. Aside from petty persecutions, however, such as failing to promote competent Jewish teachers, his four years of rule have produced but two notable results. An entirely adequate gas-system already underground has been abandoned and a new system put in by the city—the Socialist part of the name had to be justified in some way—at a cost of 30,000,000 gulden, and a new system of dividing the electors has been put into effect. This last manœuvre is an impudently open gerrymander to secure Lueger's ascendancy for four years more. The Viennese electors are arranged in classes, the three highest classes voting in separate years and for

separate representatives. The highest class, consisting of large property owners, wholesale merchants, etc., was not very decidedly Christian Socialist. The second class, called "the Intelligence class," included doctors, lawyers, professors, etc., and, as was to be expected, opposed Luegerism. Then came the small shop-keeper (*der kleine Mann*) class, a vast class here in Vienna. To these men Lueger long ago promised a wonderful increase of prosperity if they would only trust him and hate Jews. Hence, until recently, the third class was reliably anti-Semitic. At the bottom was the workmen's class, socialistic in tendency, and strongly anti-Lueger. The numbers of this last class are large, but their power small, because they vote but once in four years, and then with the other three classes, for representatives which shall represent all four bodies of electors.

Recently the gross unfairness of Lueger's methods, the unheard-of stupidity of the gas-works affair, and the non-appearance of that greater prosperity with which Luegerism heralded its approach, have induced slight back-currents. An election was at hand, and Lueger felt insecure. He therefore brought about the passage of a law shifting vast numbers of the reliably Christian-Socialist third class into the first and second classes. The gaps in the third class he filled up with city and court employees drawn from the fourth class, men who must vote as he wished or lose their places. This might have seemed enough; but he proceeded to make up the voting lists in the most scandalous manner. If you lack the necessary certificates, but are vouched for by a known Anti-Semite, down goes your name; if not, you lose your vote, even though you be vouched for by men of unimpeachable integrity. In short, Lueger and Company make or unmake voters just as they please.

Apparently, Dr. Lueger had won his perpetual reelection, and he would have been happy indeed but that, despite his entreaties, the Liberal Councillors resigned in a body, saying that the constituencies which had elected them no longer existed. The corollary was obvious even to the Vienna Christian-Socialist. The only answer left to the Rump Gemeinderath was to cry out, on hearing of the "defection" of their colleagues, that the council was at last "purged of Jews" (*Juden-rein*). That the vast majority of the Councillors who resigned had no trace of Jewish blood, however Jewish their sympathies had been made by Luegerism, did not seem to the Christian Socialists to affect the pertinency of the cry. Well may the *Neue Freie Presse* lament that there is in Vienna "a Council [*Stadtvertretung*] which has no parallel on the whole continent, and perhaps not even in Texas or California," and that Vienna has been made ridiculous in the eyes of all Europe.

It is more than Vienna that is made ridiculous. From common councils we have learned not to expect decency. But the opéra-bouffe methods, the constant interruptions of the speaker that degenerate into low rows, the lugging in of vile attacks on the Jewish character even when there can be no possible connection of the subject under debate with Jewish influence, extend as high as the Imperial Parliament—witness the debate of May 8, when the question of the day was the reform of the Trade Regulations (*Gewerbe-ordnung*). How low de-

cency has sunk in the Austrian Parliament may be gathered from the fact that it seriously debated the two following motions put by the Christian Socialist (God save the mark!) Schneider: first, that sexual intercourse between Jews and Christians be punished under the law that punishes such connection between man and brute; second, that at Easter time the Jews be placed under special police supervision. Why? Lest they murder children to use their blood for some black rites of their devilish creed. Herr Schneider not only believes in the story of Hugh of Lincoln, but believes also that those days are come again. One might think this all an unseemly play, but that the so-called "Ritual-murder" cases come up in the courts, and that Jews have been sentenced to death for this fanciful crime.

LINDSAY TODD DAMON.

EN ROUTE TO AN ECLIPSE STATION.

CARTHAGE, May 8, 1900.

The Mediterranean in spring does not offer tropical voyaging. During the delightful yachting cruise which brought us to Tunis, fresh winds and bright days have prevailed, but little of that dreamy, half-hazy sunshine and mirror-like water which one naturally associates with this classic sea in May.

Tunis is Oriental, but it is also very French. The combination is curious. A wide boulevard leads the way into the city, where well-dressed men and women stroll under the palms, or sit out on the sidewalk before cafés at the same little round white tables which might decorate the pavements of Paris itself. A stately Arab now and then, wrapped in white burnouse and impenetrable dignity, walking amid the stranger hordes, hardly disturbs the European effect. But pass through the picturesque old arch, Bab el-Bahar, rechristened "Porte de France," with its Arabic inscriptions, and spend an hour in the "Place de la Bourse" beyond. Here the occasional wearer of hat and trousers has no perceptible effect upon the utterly foreign, theatrical scene. It seems incredible that all that varied population should be out calmly and normally upon its own business, and not instead good-humoredly masquerading with histrionic design for the entertainment of the chance stranger. Mohammedan and Jew, Turk, Arab, Bedouin, swarm. The red fez with its surrounding turban, beautiful robes in pale blue, in gray, and dark red embroidered in green, pass and repass, while the graceful burnouse, generally white, is omnipresent. The grave money-changers sit in tiny doorways, implacable, unsmiling. Every corner has its sleeping tenant wrapped in his robe, careless of pedestrian or vehicle, safe in the sanctity of his covered face. Jewish women with dark eyes and hair, baggy white trousers, and tall, pointed headdress, from which a long white drapery floats or is gathered gracefully about the throat; Moslem women in white with faces dismally covered by thick black scarves, close above and below their eyes; laughing Bedouin boys with superb teeth and garments of coarse sacking; overladen and undersized donkeys; scornful camels—one might do far less interesting things than sit in that open square and silently study its changing occupants. The city, however, and indeed the whole region, present the somewhat sad and anomalous, if

inevitable, spectacle of an alien nation wielding the real power over another upon its own ground; that other not necessarily barbarous throughout, but unfitted by language, traditions, and habits, by national *esprit*, to hold its own in the great world of rulers and progress.

The real interest of this North African community, however, lies not in semi-tropical Tunis, with its palms and its swarming nations, but five miles northward, at the site of ancient Carthage, where still lie open to the sun mosaics and tessellated pavements from which the casual nomadic child brushes away the dry, yellow soil to show the exquisite designs. Much has been done by French archaeologists, but much remains. Both the museum at Bardo and at Carthage are most lovingly and intelligently arranged, and their riches in treasure trove are constantly increasing. But this city of Dido, silent with the stillness of the centuries, has stories yet to tell.

A railway now runs to Carthage from Tunis, but perhaps genuine familiarity with the country and its atmosphere is attained better by a carriage drive over the excellent French road. The fields are aflame just now with scarlet poppies, and local effects are given by an occasional square white tomb, heavily domed, with perhaps a single date palm near by, or an Arab sitting mercifully but precariously rearward upon his patient donkey, whose omnipresent woes never rise to the dignity of real sorrows. The summer palace of the Bey may be visited but superficially. A walk through the court-yards is allowed, and one may glance at the thickly latticed windows, from which not impossibly dark eyes may peep, themselves unseen; but one may not stand still within the precincts, far less seat himself for protracted study of the forbidden. Not on the direct road to Carthage, but easily reached during the same drive, is the museum at Bardo, opened in 1888 in the old harem adjoining the Bey's public palace, and full of most interesting results of recent North African excavating. Catalogues can hardly keep pace with discovery and addition, so that of many beautiful things a verbal description by the intelligent attendant comprises all available information. Especially rich in mosaics, the museum contains room after room filled with fine examples of wall and floor decoration, those found in Sûza (Hadrumentum) generally in a better state of preservation than the Carthage remains. "The Triumph of Neptune" is the largest example, and one of the finest in the world. Another of the Sûza mosaics shows Virgil, seated, with an open volume upon his knee, in which appear the first two lines of the "Æneid." These ancient dwellers by the sea would seem to have pleased themselves by reproducing with their bits of colored stone many familiar scenes; and so "fishing," with men and boats and nets, a "seashore banquet," quite elaborately worked out, the "chase," with dogs, hunters, and flying game, appear. In 1897 a very large pavement design was discovered near Zafhrun, representing the signs of the zodiac in a circle, surrounded by the seven days of the week. In addition to the earlier mosaics, there are many exhibiting Christian designs.

But mosaics by no means comprise the chief wealth of the museum. Hundreds of Punic lamps of earthenware are gathered, showing simple but graceful forms and de-

coration, weird masks with ingenious varieties of contortion in the features, tear vials and water-jars of immemorial antiquity, and fine bits of sculpture, showing diaphanous drapery over lovely limbs. Three most charming statues have been recently excavated together at Carthage, perhaps the most beautiful at Bardo. The central figure in this exquisite group is thought to be a Ceres, and is more perfect than the others, one of which is provisionally named a *danseuse*. A few fine relics in gold and silver are shown, and altogether the Musée Alaoui would be an enthralling spot for months of study.

Beyond Bardo the country continues level, with here and there an olive grove or a line of eucalyptus trees, but still flooded with blinding sunshine. The Arabs have a proverb to the effect that "the sun of the beans makes a man mad." Fortunately we have seen no example of its truth, though this is certainly the time of ripening beans. The fields of wheat, its heavy heads bending with richness, dotted with poppies and yellow marguerites, stretch out on every side, with enough prickly pear, "Barbary fig," white houses against a deep blue sky, and passing camels laden with goatskins of water, to preserve a characteristic landscape, even without the encampments of Bedouins—their low, dark tents crowded together, a sort of background to the swarthy dwellers and tethered animals of the community. To scratch the soil merely, in this favored region, is to get an abundant crop—the secret, certainly, of the continual and immediate recuperation of the old Carthaginians after crushing battles during the Punic wars, when their enemies repeatedly destroyed fields and villages. As soon as the actual pressure of unfriendly armies was removed, nature, with slightest assistance, filled the land with abundance.

At the edge of the crater at Kilauea is a "volcano house." At the gates of the Alhambra in Granada is a "Washington Irving Hotel," and so one should not be surprised, even if a bit disenchanted, to find on the very hilltop of old Carthage an inn where the best of modern French luncheons may be eaten on a cool and massive veranda of stone and stucco, facing the sea. And the view there spread out must have inspired a passionate devotion in the old dwellers, and added to the agony of loss and ruin. Now the busy hum of no city surrounds the citadel; the teeming life of nearly three thousand years ago, as well as of the later Roman civilization, is absolutely hushed. On the yellowish hillside a small white village lies asleep in the sun, and from the still, dead, pulseless, vanished city we look down upon the bays which cover its old piers and walls, and beyond to the blue Mediterranean—a dream of color so exquisite as to defy not only words, but the brushes of this world's most skilful artists. Is it blue, or a green of indescribable quality, or purple like the robes of kings? It was none, it was all, or something else for which we have no name. And across lay the Cape Sidi-Bou-Said, and upon the horizon the islands of Zembra and Zimbretta, in a dimly illuminated radiance of hazy glory, with a few sails between, bending away from imperceptible breezes.

The scene, the sunshine, the atmosphere, form fitting prelude to the splendid collections in the museum of *les pères blancs*, founded by the Rev. Père Delattre. Its

garden walls are rich with fine fragments built into their own plaster—bas-reliefs, Punic and Latin inscriptions, and the like; and numberless water-jars, unearthened from the surrounding ground, lie in piles, among the tiny stone sepulchres, with their pointed roofs, once full of the ashes of forgotten inhabitants. Fragments of fine sculpture, figures with splendid poise and draperies swept by unseen gales into noble folds, piles of stone balls, ammunition for long-vanished catapults, fill the garden. The "white fathers" walk peacefully up and down their paths amid these incomparable relics, or pace the shady gravelled terrace before the portico, into which is built a colossal figure once adorning perhaps the very temple of Æsculapius, whence, as Polybius tells us, the train of suppliants emerged during the destruction of Carthage, entreating of Scipio the lives of the few survivors. The collection, constantly increasing, and intelligently arranged, is rich beyond catalogues. The mosaics, all found here, illustrate different epochs; some purely of the centuries B.C., some representing the Swastica, others with Christian scenes and symbols. In bas-reliefs are Abraham offering his sacrifice, Jonah and the whale—a favorite topic, apparently, and often repeated in different forms in mosaic and lamp—and Daniel among the lions. The monogram of Christ frequently appears. Lamps, purely Punic, abound, of simple design if somewhat crude ornamentation; and tiniest amulets, scarabs and coins, yellow skulls, tear vials and vases, and hundreds of other relics which have drifted down to us out of these centuries of silence, and from which we must reconstruct the Carthaginian story.

As to actual remains on the spot, there are few. The ancient cisterns may still be seen, in the ruins of which nomadic Arabs seem to have established themselves; the smaller cisterns have been restored. Some of the pits are shown in which animals were kept—perhaps the elephants which worked such havoc at times with the enemy in Carthaginian battles. A few graves remain, from which the contents have been removed, and traces of the Forum, palaces and temples may be faintly followed, but the museum, or the collections in France, contain the columns and decorations, and many modern edifices in Tunis were built from marble excavated here—a veritable quarry, indeed, of already prepared blocks, most conveniently at hand.

Beautiful mosaic pavements lay under our feet as we threaded the pathways. The Amphitheatre is in a fair state of preservation, and numbers of Christian martyrs here met their death, among them the Saint Perpetua to whom a large marble cross in the centre has been erected. The former entrance for beasts has been turned into a small chapel. Above our heads on the edge of the pit a flock of camels were picturesquely projected against the sky, and a flock of goats scrambled down, tumultuously.

The great cathedral now completed, with the gorgeous tomb of Cardinal Lavigerie, the little chapel of Saint Louis, the Carmelite Convent—one must see them all; but the vital points to be studied in connection with the museum treasures are out in the silent sunshine, where, wrapped in unequalled pathos, lie the few vestiges of Punic and later Roman culture, finally brought to naught by overrunning Arab hordes seven hundred years ago.

MABEL LOOMIS TODD.

Correspondence.

THE CHATTANOOGA INDUSTRIAL CONVENTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The Montgomery Conference of May 8 last aroused far more interest throughout the country than the one which met a week later at Chattanooga, the historic battlefield of East Tennessee, and now the centre of the new South; but neither convention can be ignored by the student of contemporary events. Both assemblies are, indeed, significant and cheering indications of the dawn of a brighter day for this portion of the country, and may be regarded as the earnest attempts of the Southern people to cultivate a healthier state of public sentiment in regard to actual social conditions. Even, therefore, if nothing was accomplished at either meeting, the bare fact that there have been two such conferences in the same year—indeed, within the same month—is a sign at once practical and encouraging.

The Chattanooga Convention was composed largely of men engaged in commercial and railway affairs throughout the South, and the discussions accordingly took a wider range than those at Montgomery, whose Conference met for the purpose of considering racial relations; but the latter topic was also very freely discussed at Chattanooga. It is interesting to note in this connection that a paper which attracted serious attention was read by Prof. W. H. Council, President of the Agricultural and Mechanical College for Negroes at Normal, near Huntsville, Alabama. Mr. Council was born a slave, in North Carolina, about fifty years ago, and is a self-made man. Although he has held several public offices, he has devoted most of his life to teaching, and he enjoys the confidence of his white neighbors. His school has been a marked success, and it sent many interesting exhibits to the Industrial Convention at Chattanooga, including all sorts of foodstuffs, clothing, and implements made by its five hundred pupils.

Professor Council's paper was entitled "The Race Problem and its Relation to the Industrial Interests of the Country," which was also ably discussed by Dr. W. T. Cole of Texas. In the course of his remarks, Professor Council used the following significant language:

"One by one, the questions raised by the new relations between the races in the South have been accepted and satisfactorily settled. The negro's freedom and citizenship are fixed facts. His ability to take on higher forms of civilization and education is no longer doubted by well-informed and unbiassed people. His capacity for every form of industrial life, skilled and unskilled, is not an open question, but an accepted fact, wherever he has been permitted a chance. Both friend and foe agree that the suffrage has suffered in his hands, and that the time has come for its restriction on some fair and equitable basis upon which men may stand, independent of race, color, or previous conditions of whatsoever character. He is fast breaking away from fondly cherished dogmas, and falling in line with the new political, social, and economic thought of the times. He has churches, schools, colleges, universities, theologians, linguists, poets, painters, doctors, authors, editors, blacksmiths, carpenters, farmers, merchants, shipwrights, wheelwrights, masons, engineers, electricians, telegraphers."

This paper was published in full in the

Chattanooga Times, the chief morning newspaper of the city, and along with it a photograph of its author. After a very thorough discussion of the subject, the matter was referred to the Committee on "Industrial Interests," which recommended in its report, made on the fourth and last day of the Convention, "that every possible means be used to educate the public sentiment of the South to regard the negro as a factor in upbuilding the South, and that as such we should use all possible means to make him as efficient as possible, and pledge him the fullest guarantee of earning a living in every honest field of human endeavor, and protection in his God-given right of self-support."

Another paper that created unbounded interest was the one read by Mr. C. A. Kehr of Knoxville, on the subject of the "Poor White Boys of the South." It was an eloquent plea for industrial training—a topic of frequent discourse throughout the convention, and one which was very favorably considered. Mr. Kehr recognized the vast economic changes that are taking place in the Southern States, and urged very forcibly that one of the best means of enabling the less fortunate members of the white race to adapt themselves to their new environment is to furnish them with manual training.

Other speakers adopted similar lines of thought in advocating the establishment of schools of technology, which have already been successfully inaugurated in South Carolina, Alabama, Texas, and other Southern States; and the committee to which the subject was referred, in the course of an able report, urged that provision should be made for the thorough training of Southern children in useful and profitable industry, including agriculture, the mechanical arts, and domestic economy. This committee especially emphasized the necessity of preparing the youth of the South to operate the machinery which is being introduced into that section for the manufacture of its raw material into finished products. "We are gratified to note," continued the report of the Committee on Technical Training, "the present tendency in education to meet the practical demands of the times, and to direct the aspirations of our youth towards the attainment of skillfulness and proficiency in industrial pursuits. While we would not, in any way, detract from the importance of what is termed the higher education, nor depreciate the splendid work of our leading educators in that line, we urge upon the educators of the South a special effort in behalf of a more general and comprehensive system of industrial education." As a result of this feature of the work of the Convention, a "Southern Board of Industrial Education" is to be established in order to awaken popular interest in the subject, while the friends of the movement will strive to found textile schools wherever practicable.

The space at my command will not permit me, in concluding, to do more than indicate in the briefest sort of way some other very important matters discussed at Chattanooga, and the reports made by various Committees on Educational, Agricultural, Commercial, Immigration, and Industrial Affairs. There was a thoughtful address by ex-Mayor Van Hoose of Birmingham, Alabama, who urged the construction of a water-way connecting the Warrior and

Tennessee Rivers. This would connect Birmingham with the Gulf, and open up thoroughly the great coal and iron fields of the South. Government engineers, moreover, have pronounced the plan a practicable one, provided a proper system of dams and locks be constructed; and the subject is accordingly one of national importance. A similar topic was the long-discussed Ship Canal across Florida, while Secretary of Agriculture Wilson talked interestingly of what his bureau is doing in the various Southern and Western States. Altogether, therefore, the Southern Industrial Convention augurs well for the future, and its meeting next year at New Orleans will, in all probability, show an even greater progress, especially if the Chattanooga motto, "Business, no politics, no sectionalism," is adhered to.—Very respectfully,

B. J. RAMAGE.

SEWANEE, TENN., June 1, 1900.

THE ORIGIN OF CHESS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Of very general interest are the communications lately published in the *Nation* regarding the antiquity of chess. The latest statement (*Nation*, No. 1823, p. 436) attempts to sum up our knowledge in the words: "Before the seventh century of our era the existence of chess in any land is not demonstrable. . . . Down to that date it is all impenetrable darkness," etc.

A little more light has been shed on this darkness since the publication of the last work cited by the writer of the words above, though, as this light is burning under the bushel of an *Asiatic Journal*, it is not at all strange that it should fail to cast its illumination very far. But many who are not readers of the *Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society* may be glad to know what has been brought out by the investigations of Professor Macdonell, whose 'Origin and Early History of Chess' is, I believe, the latest study of this intricate subject. Specialists will find dates and authorities given in full in the *Journal* for 1898, p. 117 ff., and p. 176. Omitting technical details and the discussion of minor points, Macdonell's discovery and results may be summed up as follows:

The oldest Arabic and Persian authorities ascribe an Indian origin to chess. The Pahlavi *catrang* and Arabic *shatranj* are merely phonetic modifications of Sanskrit *catranga*, a 'complete army.' The game was then a "battle-game." According to Persian tradition, an Indian king sent the game of chess to a Persian king between 531 and 579 A. D. In return the Persian King sent the Indian King the game of Nard (backgammon). This is the tradition which was afterwards utilized by Firdausi, the Persian poet, in his 'Shahnamah,' about 1000 B. C. This Persian tradition is supported by Arabic authors as well. The later not only report that Nard was sent to India, but also state that *shatranj*, chess, was invented in India. Their authority is later, however, than that of the Persian tradition.

Turning now to Sanskrit literature, we find that a primitive form of chess was known in India some time before our era, as the board called "eight-square" (in distinction from the board on which was played *pachisi* and backgammon) is mentioned as early as the second century, or, according to some authorities, as early as the fifth cen-

tury B. C. It is, however, impossible to tell just what this game was. On the other hand, until lately the oldest known certain reference to chess in Sanskrit was a passage dating from the middle of the ninth century. At that time it was a familiar game, and the moves of the pieces as described by Indian authors were mainly those of later date. But Prof. Macdonell has now found an older reference in a passage of the 'Harshacarita,' which, referring to chess, names both the board and the game. This work dates from the first part of the seventh century. It cannot be supposed, since the game is mentioned familiarly as being well known at that time, that chess was then a novelty, and the conclusion appears to be inevitable that the game existed by the middle of the sixth century at least.

We thus have corroborative evidence from three sources, Persian, Arabic, and Sanskrit, all pointing to the same period, the middle of the sixth century, as a time when chess was known in India. But we can go back one step further, and say that if a game of this name was known at this period, then the fact that the same name occurs still earlier is, if not proof positive, still a pretty sure indication that this name indicates the same game. Such an indication is supplied by the mention of the name *catrang* in the 'Karnamak,' to which Nöldeke assigns the date 590-628, A. D. Further, a Chinese writer of the tenth century independently assigns the introduction of chess into China to the sixth century. It appears likely, therefore, that chess was known in India in the sixth century, if not earlier (as the mention of the "eight-square" board may indicate), and in Persia in the seventh century. In the tenth century it was probably introduced into Spain, where in the eleventh century it was already common. By the twelfth century it was known in France, Germany, and England, and by the end of that century it was a favorite gambling game all over Europe.

WASHBURN HOPKINS.

NEW HAVEN, CONN., June 8, 1900.

AMERICAN SCHOOL IN PALESTINE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: You will perhaps find opportunity to mention in the *Nation*—as a matter of interest to the scholarly world—that the American School for Study and Exploration in Palestine, projected by the Society of Biblical Literature and Exegesis, cordially approved by the American Oriental Society, and subsidized by the Archaeological Institute (with which it is affiliated in much the same way as the schools at Athens and Rome), will go into operation next October, in Jerusalem, under Prof. C. C. Torrey, the recently appointed Professor of Semitics at Yale University, as its director.

Students from any one of the twenty or more institutions coöperating in its support will be admitted on certificate; other applicants will be expected to possess a working knowledge of Latin, Greek, and Hebrew, as well as German and French. Its managing committee consists of Drs. Wm. Hayes Ward and John P. Peters of New York, Prof. H. G. Mitchell of Boston University, and Prof. Theo. F. Wright and J. Henry Thayer of Cambridge, to any one of whom inquiries may be addressed.

Yours truly, J. HENRY THAYER.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., June 4, 1900.

AN ARBITER OF OPINION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A lively letter in the *Nation* of May 31, from Prof. F. C. de Sumichrast, sets forth the anti-Boer arguments briefly and strikingly. It would be interesting, perhaps instructive, to learn what the Dutch professors would say in reply. Then, behind all arguments, is feeling. What creates it? This, too, it would be interesting to have catalogued. Does not the world need a Humanity Band, or Association, to study such subjects as dispassionately as may be, and help toward a right understanding of them, and right feeling, and even sometimes helpful action anent them?

CIVIS.

NEWPORT, June 8, 1900.

Notes.

During the present month D. Appleton & Co. will publish 'The Storied West Indies,' by F. A. Ober, and 'In Circling Camps,' a romance of the civil war, by J. A. Altsheler.

Harper & Bros. will shortly bring out a new volume of short stories and essays by Mark Twain, entitled 'The Man that Corrupted Hadleyburg.'

'What is the Matter with the Church?' by the Rev. Frederick Stanley Root, will soon issue from the Abbey Press of this city.

Henry Frowde has nearly ready 'A History of Bradfield College,' by old Bradfield boys, edited by A. F. Leach.

Macmillan's showy yet elegant and wonderfully cheap "Library of English Classics" is continued with Carlyle's "French Revolution," in two volumes (octavo) of generous print. The index, of thirty pages, is not a fresh one, and therefore is not as full as it might be—witness the definition of *carmaigne* on p. 48 of the second volume, and the omission of any corresponding reference; and one might welcome an index pointing back to the French phrases which abound, from *O Richard, O mon Roi*, downwards.

A welcome addition to the handy Dent-Macmillan "Temple Classics" is 'Poems, Narrative, Elegiac, and Lyric, by Matthew Arnold,' collected and bibliographically edited by H. Baxton Forman. In this little volume is contained not all, but nearly all, that the poet Arnold's admirers should care to possess, along with the preface to the 1853 edition, whose doctrine will not soon be superseded. A copy of Watts's portrait of the author serves as frontispiece. A companion issue in the same series is Henry Vaughan's 'Silex Scintillans, or Sacred Poems and Private Ejaculations.'

It is odd to find the Stevenson cult leading up to a reprint of a little book of maxims, attributed to William Penn, entitled 'Some Fruits of Solitude' (Truslove, Hanson & Comba). Stevenson, as Mr. Edmund Gosse tells us, picked it up, in a Pennsylvania edition, in San Francisco, when he was convalescent and much depressed in spirits; and his tribute to its tonic effect upon him reminds us of Franklin's acknowledgments to Cotton Mather's 'Essays to Do Good.' But Penn, or the author of 'Some Fruits,' was indebted in his turn to La Rochefoucauld.

Mr. John Jay Chapman has arranged with his publishers, Messrs. Scribner, for the publication of a twenty-five-cent edition of his

'Causes and Consequences.' For this paper edition application should be made to the Chambers Printing Company, No. 24 New Chambers Street, New York. It makes dog-cheap (as Emerson said of eloquence among the abolitionists) a literary style of very unusual distinction, apart from the wholesomeness of the moral and political doctrine so stimulatingly conveyed in it.

'Glutton or Epicure' (Chicago: Herbert S. Stone & Co.) consists of two essays by Mr. Horace Fletcher on the value of extreme mastication of food in relation to nutrition and to health. As a layman, the author transforms this physiological virtue into a moral and physical panacea.

We have received the second volume of Salomon Reinach's valuable 'Répertoire des Vases peints grecs et étrusques' (Paris: E. Leroux). It includes the reproductions of the vase-paintings engraved in Millingen's 'Collection Coghill,' Gerhard's 'Auserlesene Vasenbilder,' Laborde's 'Collection Lamberg,' De Luyne's 'Description,' Roulez's 'Vases peints du Musée de Leyde,' Tischbein's large work, with many plates of the unpublished fifth volume, which M. Reinach has collected from various incomplete sets, and the three plates of Schulz's 'Amazonen-Vase von Ruvo' (1851). The character of the reproductions is precisely like those of the first volume, and they are necessarily reduced to a small scale, but the usefulness of the book as a whole is increased by the index, prepared with the editor's characteristic thoroughness, which appears at the end, together with a comprehensive bibliography of Greek and Etruscan ceramics. We do not forget the half-promise of a third volume, which was made in the introduction, and trust we may still look forward to that, as there is still much valuable material which ought to be included.

Dr. Friedrich Gotthelf's 'Das Deutsche Altertum in den Anschauungen des 16. und 17. Jahrhunderts' (Berlin: Alexander Duncker) is a careful study of the conception of Germanic origins in the pseudo-classic era, especially as manifested in annalistic and antiquarian writings from Aventin's 'Bayerische Chronik' to Cluver's 'Germania Antiqua,' and in novelistic literature from the Amadis romances to Lohenstein's 'Arminius.' Of particular interest is the discussion of the literary history of the fabulous Judæo-Germanic patriarch Ascanas, and his identification on the one hand with Ascanius, on the other with Tuisco (the etymological process of this latter identification, according to an antiquarian wiseacre of the sixteenth century, having the following stages: Ascanas, Ascon, Der Ascon, Dascon, Discon, Tuiscon!). The god of the national beverage also receives due consideration. As to his name, Dr. Gotthelf accepts the view that Gambrinus was a corruption of Jan Primus, or John I., Duke of Brabant (1251-1294), who is recorded to have been honorary head of the brewers' guild of Brussels. Burkard Waldis, in a rhymed chronicle of 1543, identifies Gambrinus with Gambrivius, one of the fabulous Germanic kings, and relates that he taught the ancient Germans the art of beer brewing.

"Wie er solchs von Osiride
Gelernt hat, und von Iside."

Hans Sachs, in a *Schwank* of the year 1553, calls him Jamprinius. Dr. Gotthelf's study forms part 13 of a series entitled "Forschungen zur neueren Litteraturgeschichte," which is fathered by Prof. Muncker of Munich.

In a recent number of the *Nachrichten* of the Göttingen Academy of Sciences, Prof. Gustav Roethe publishes extracts from lectures on the history of German literature delivered by Jacob Grimm at Göttingen University in 1834 and 1835, or, rather, extracts from notes of these lectures taken by two of Grimm's hearers, Adolf von Warnecke, in later years a distinguished publicist and curator of the University, and Karl Goedeke, then serving his apprenticeship in literary lore, of which he was to become in the future an acknowledged master. The chief interest of these lectures lies in this, that we find in them the manifest incentive for what was to be Goedeke's magnum opus, the 'Grundriss zur Geschichte der deutschen Dichtung'; for their distinguishing feature, to judge from Professor Roethe's analysis, must have been encyclopædic inclusiveness and bibliographical fulness. As a contribution to our knowledge of Grimm's personality, they are mainly negative. They reveal again his touching simplicity of mind, his ardent patriotism, his deep love for whatever is indigenous and instinctive; but they also show most strikingly his lack of aesthetic training, his limitations as a historian, and his inability to cope with the complicated problems of modern life. His noble manliness is reflected in his enthusiastic praise of Lessing, his deep sense of the genuine in the panegyric on Goethe. Very characteristic are the lines on Fischart: "He is a type of the German people. He has elevation of soul, depth, rough wit, humor, acumen, good-natured naïveté, scholarship. With all his Aristophanic boldness and stout virility, he is modest and pure, like the Bible and our ancestors. The sense of measure alone seems to be lacking."

Mr. Edward Wilson James proceeds, in his *Lower Norfolk County, Virginia, Antiquary*, volume iii., part 2 (Richmond: Bell Book and Stationery Co.), with lists of property-owners in that county in 1860, and of land and slave owners in Princess Anne County in 1775. In Norfolk County, 191 colored people owned 46,543 dollars' worth of property, and in St. Bride's Parish here recorded two free mulattoes owned \$6,000 of real and \$2,200 of personal property. A receipt for a slave dated August 27, 1770, is made the occasion of a footnote by the editor, in which, after adducing numerous examples of the New England traffic in slaves, he says: "There is a widespread belief in the South that the Negroes were brought to the South by the Yankees. This belief is largely true, but it is not all true. The old Maryland and Virginia newspapers show that many of the first men in the two colonies were willing to get rich in the same nefarious trade."

"The Road to Bolivia" is the title of the opening article in the *National Geographic Magazine* (Washington) for June, in which Mr. William E. Curtis gives an entertaining sketch of a recent journey to that country. Referring to the railway across the Andes, he says that the greater part of the freight appears to have come from Germany, and it is remarkable how rapidly the Germans are absorbing the commerce of the region. At the summit station, Crucero Alto, 14,666 feet above the sea, "water freezes every night of the year. . . . There are no facilities for artificial heat, not even fireplaces, and people keep themselves warm by putting on ponchos and

other extra wraps." An account of the colonial expansion of France dwells rather optimistically upon the condition of Algeria, and contains this remarkable statement about Indo-China: "A study of the number of Frenchmen who have settled in this colony as compared with the English who have settled in India, would be to the advantage of Indo-China!" We note a welcome increase of the geographical miscellanea, accompanied by several useful outline maps. In the one depicting the Gold Coast, in connection with a note upon the Ashanti revolt, the boundary between the English and German possessions is the old one, not that decided upon by the Anglo-German Convention of November 14, 1899.

The colonization of Algeria progresses, though but slowly. According to the latest official figures, as given by M. Onésime Reclus in the *Tour du Monde*, the annual increase of the European population is about 12,000, of whom 5,000, mostly French, are immigrants. During the past year five new settlements were made, and some 50,000 acres of land were taken up, while several other recently founded settlements showed some growth, as "50 houses built, 165 colonists established, with 300 work-people of all kinds." To such meagre figures M. Reclus triumphantly points as a complete refutation of the statement "que la France est incapable de coloniser!"

The opening article in the *Annales de Géographie* for May is upon coral reefs, and is largely taken up with a description of Mr. Alexander Agassiz's researches. His conclusions in regard to their formation appear to the writer, M. Caullery, to be the "best balanced and most solid." There follows an interesting attempt to trace the variations of the linguistic boundaries of the regions in which French is or has been the predominant language. It is noted that the geographic names of a district, in distinction from the topographic, go back to the earliest historic times. The names of the streams in northern France, for instance, are Celtic. A series of maps show in graphic form the general conclusions reached. We mention also an account of one of the numerous expeditions for the exploration of the northern Sahara, and a short sketch of the physical features of Lower California, with several photographs of characteristic scenery. The three Indian tribes of this region described by Humboldt at the beginning of the century are nearly extinct and are replaced by half-breeds. "The true wealth and only future of the peninsula is in its mines."

In an interesting account, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* of May 15, of the events which led to the inauguration of the Liberal Empire in France, M. Émile Ollivier betrays his sympathy with the Emperor who, after ten years of absolute rule, "began to feel that the burden of a people was too heavy for him to carry alone"—a sympathy which seems natural to those who recall the "cœur léger" with which the writer, as Prime Minister, was willing to shoulder the responsibility for a most disastrous war. When Napoleon III. was forced to renounce his project of reorganizing his army, in October, 1860, he at once began as a diversion, but soon became absorbed in, his 'Life of Cæsar,' and M. Ollivier has some entertaining pages on the period when Napoleon became "l'Empereur des érudits," and appointed Alfred Maury "librarian of the Tuileries" (where there was no library), who in his

turn brought his friend Victor Duruy to the palace. Both these young scholars were political enemies of Napoleon. In following the narrative of the political events of the day, we also get glimpses of several young men destined to play a more or less important part in public life: Jules Ferry, Gambetta, Floquet, and especially Prévost-Paradol, whose tragic end in Washington is within the memory of our older readers. The formal announcement of Napoleon's resolution to enlarge the prerogatives of the Corps Législatif was made on November 22, 1860; actually, the change had been introduced some months earlier by the small Opposition under Ollivier's leadership.

The fifty-eighth issue of Medical Reports published by order of the Inspector-General of Customs at Shanghai (London: P. S. King & Son) is for the half-year ending September 30, 1899. It opens with Dr. J. J. Matignon's communication, in French, to the Paris Academy of Medicine on the bubonic pest in Mongolia, with maps; and nearly every one of the succeeding eleven reports, mainly English, has something to say of the plague. As usual, in this valuable series, the pictures of unsanitation and complete hygienic ignorance and indifference exhibited in China are truly appalling. The relative immunity of Europeans from the plague is remarked.

The agitation regarding the inconvenient and unsafe condition of the building of the National Central Library at Florence, to which we have already referred, has resulted in a confirmation of this condition by an eminent visiting committee and of the urgent necessity of relief. The committee viewed also the various sites proposed to be occupied by a new building, or utilization of an old one, and decided on that (near the church of Santa Croce) at present occupied by cavalry barracks, separated from the church by the School of Decorative Art, which it is not the intention to disturb. The ground chosen has an area of about 12,000 square yards. The Government is to be asked for \$400,000 in two years, which the Florence Savings Bank will discount for immediate construction. The city is expected to contribute \$60,000.

The German Emperor, as King of Prussia, has instructed the Cultus Minister of the kingdom to abrogate all those regulations in the statutes of the universities which still demand the employment of the Latin language in the public exercises or faculty business. The academic language of the Prussian high schools is to be exclusively German.

The increasing prosperity of Germany is now making itself felt also in larger gifts and bequests for philanthropic purposes. Nearly twenty-three million marks were given during the first three months of the current year by manufacturers and other private persons, and to a lesser extent by industrial corporations, for the benefit of employees, for libraries, special schools and asylums, and various other objects. Such private munificence, which indicates a growing sense of responsibility on the part of the rich, would have seemed impossible not more than a decade or two ago.

The attendance at the Russian universities has suffered a noticeable decrease during the present academic year. The University of St. Petersburg has receded from 3,867 students to 3,662, and the Mos-

cow University, with its 4,408 students, has 382 fewer than last year, while the Kief institution has lost 290 students. It is generally believed that the steps taken last year by the authorities, abridging the rights and liberties of the universities, is the cause of this retrogression. Rather singularly, the decrease is marked in the teaching corps also. The St. Petersburg University lost nineteen of its instructors by resignation, and among them several leading lights. Other universities suffered, but not to the same extent.

—The two articles in the *Century* for June which are most calculated to attract attention are Nicola Tesla's "The Problem of Increasing Human Energy" (illustrated by the writer's electrical experiments, now first published) and Theodore Roosevelt's "Latitude and Longitude among Reformers." The former, except for the rather startling illustrations, may be said to have been to a very great extent anticipated by the newspapers (what is there that is not nowadays anticipated by them, whether it ever happens or not?); while, considered as a communication to the lay world, it is not as clear as it might be. For instance, one thing which most laymen keenly desire to know about wireless electricity is how it can be utilized at considerable distances for the transmission of energy. On this point Mr. Tesla says: "The experiments have shown conclusively that, with two terminals maintained at an elevation of not more than thirty thousand to thirty-five thousand feet above sea-level, and with an electrical pressure of fifteen to twenty millions volts, the energy of thousands of horse-power can be transmitted over distances which may be hundreds and, if necessary, thousands of miles. I am hopeful, however, that I may be able to reduce very considerably the elevation of the terminals now required." But, since elevations of six miles are within the limits of perpetual snow and ice, this would seem like very little more than the expression of a pious hope that an apparently insurmountable obstacle may at some future time be overcome by some means not stated. This sort of vagueness is not compensated for by such predictions as that we are on the eve of an age of aluminum, and that aluminum "will not stop at downing copper," but, before many years, "will be engaged in a fierce struggle with iron," the issue of which "the future alone can decide." As a vehicle of scientific exposition, we have rarely met with any style so disappointing as Mr. Tesla's. Mr. Roosevelt's article is intended as a reply to his critics, but it has the defect of not being what lawyers call "responsive." The criticism which the writer conjures up and replies to is that he does not do all the good that might by possibility be conceived as feasible for one holding the office of Governor. But this is not the charge, as we understand it—at least we have never heard any "idealist" or "reformer," either latitudinal or longitudinal, make any complaint of the kind. The charges are of specific failure to discharge the duties of his office in accordance with his oath and conscience; and the answer, to be at all interesting, must be as specific as the charges. The article is mainly an amplification of the platitude that perfection must not be expected of man. It is the reform counterpart of the *apologia* resorted to by our Van Wycks and Crokers—"What do you want us to be—eh? Angels?"

Oh, come off!" A noticeable essay is that on "The Poetry of William Blake," by Henry Justin Smith. It received the prize in the *Century's* competition for college graduates of 1898; Mr. Smith being a graduate of the University of Chicago of that year.

—*Scribner's* for June contains for its chief military article Richard Harding Davis's "With Buller's Column: The Battle of Pieter's Hill," with illustrations from the writer's photographs. This is a good specimen of the impressionist military description in which Mr. Davis excels—the operations being converted, as far as possible, into visual and chromatic terms. The result is that we get a series of vivid, spectacular flashes, but no reasoned account of a battle. The effort of the magazine is to apply this sort of word-painting, which is the "fad" of the day, to everything. A. Maurice Low makes use of it in an illustrated article on "How a President is Elected," and Louis C. Senger, in "Train Fourteen," applies an extension of the same method (embracing other impressions of sense besides those of the eye) in the field of the "short story." It cannot be very well employed in argumentative essays; otherwise, a geologist like George F. Becker would, perhaps, introduce it in his "Are the Philippines Worth Having?" We have read this article, which is illustrated from photographs, with some interest, because Mr. Becker has been in the field there for our Government for some time; but we cannot see that he throws much new light on the questions which are of real interest, either to Filipinos or Americans. What the former want to have settled is, Whom do the Philippines belong to? while what the latter are, by universal admission, concerned about is to know whether the islands are, not worth having, but worth what they are costing us. To the first question, geology affords no answer; to the second, as is apparent from this article, so very imperfect and inadequate an answer, that Mr. Becker is obliged to eke it out by appealing to the argument that "nothing so improves the character of a nation as responsibility for the weal or woe of dependent peoples, who, in large measure, at least, are at the mercy of the suzerain." With great candor Mr. Becker admits that "there is another doctrine," but does not clearly state what it is. He refers, we presume, to the hitherto accepted belief of all except tyrants and slaves, that nothing so depraves an individual or a nation as irresponsible power. But Mr. Becker's is the new learning. Those who agree with him may be saddened by the thought that so many Filipinos have to be killed, but if their butchery improves our character, evidently we should go on butchering until we have improved our character sufficiently to make the Filipino account show a profit. Charles Major, in "What is Historic Atmosphere?" raises an interesting question, closely connected with the problem of realism. We believe he comes as near an answer as any one can when he says that true atmosphere depends, not on literal accuracy of surroundings, but on the acts, motives, and methods of thought of the characters. Most writers nowadays try to get an historical atmosphere by imitating the style of a particular by-gone period. They are on the wrong track; besides which, Mr. Major insists, they never get the style right. A

symposium on this theme, by competent hands, would be interesting.

—Almost simultaneously with Henry Sweet's 'Practical Study of Languages,' recently noticed in these columns, appears, in Dent's "Temple Primers" series (Macmillan Co.), 'The History of Language,' from the same agile pen. It forms an attractive little volume of about 150 pages, written in a style that is bound to interest laymen and specialists alike. Sweet's treatise is entirely different in character from such a work as Paul's 'Principien der Sprachgeschichte'; it is a linguistic rather than a psychological study. We find here very little *a-priori* reasoning. The author has mastered a great many languages and has carefully observed the workings of his mother tongue; he has thus collected and classified a vast number of phenomena, and from these he draws certain general conclusions. Although the writer of a "primer" of Comparative Philology must naturally rely for the most part on the results of previous investigations, almost every page of this little book shows the trace of independent study and of a boldly original mind. Frequently, in fact, the views expressed will strike the orthodox philologist as over-bold. For instance, the theory of an early affinity between the Indo-European (or, as Sweet calls them, "Aryan") languages and the Ugrian and Altaic groups, though intrinsically probable enough and backed by some positive evidence, will be quite new to many scholars and will not find ready acceptance in all quarters. According to the interesting hypothesis adopted by Dr. Sweet, northern Europe and northern Asia were the first home of three kindred dialect groups, the Aryan, the Ugrian, and the Altaic, from which, as they spread to the southeast, south, and southwest, nearly all the present European and most of the Asiatic languages descended.

—It is interesting to imagine with what sentiments the founder of the "Ingersoll Lectureship on the Immortality of Man" would have anticipated Prof. Royce's lecture on his foundation, 'The Conception of Immortality,' which has been recently delivered, and is now published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. It may be doubted whether the subject has ever been presented in a more abstract manner. For much of the way the discussion proceeds upon the lines of Prof. Royce's late Gifford Lectures and his 'Conception of God,' but the necessity for condensation has made the degree of abstraction much more pronounced than heretofore. One cannot but imagine Prof. Royce as smiling quietly to himself, when writing of "these plain considerations," and going on to specify the rational wholeness of the world wherein the divine Will is uniquely expressed; the uniqueness of every aspect of the absolute life, as something that must have individual expression; our inability to find or express true individuals in this life. Yet must our life, he continues, eventually receive individual expression; if not here, then elsewhere; and so, finally, our genuine individuality gets its final and definite expression in a life that is conscious, and that in its meaning, "although not at all necessarily in time or space," is continuous with the fragmentary experience of our present life. This is not the kind of thing that is hidden from the wise and prudent and revealed unto babes. It appeals to metaphysical experts exclusive-

ly. Prof. Royce does not wish to have the concrete definiteness of his intimations of immortality in the least overrated. They are not likely to be. For the plain people they will have no meaning; for his metaphysical peers less, possibly, than they have for him.

—The latest volume in the "Periods of European Literature" series edited by Prof. Saintsbury (Charles Scribner's Sons) is entitled 'The Romantic Triumph,' and has for its author Mr. T. S. Omond, late fellow of St. John's College, Oxford. It attempts to trace the course of Romanticism throughout Europe from 1810 to 1850, the first half of the whole book being devoted to England, two-thirds of the second half to France and Germany, one-third to Italy, Spain, Greece, the Netherlands, the Scandinavian countries, Russia, Bohemia, and Hungary. The arrangement of the book is unsatisfactory, for, as everybody, the author included, is aware, during the first two decades at least of the period mentioned the German influence was the controlling force of the Romantic movement, both on the Continent and in England. A truly comparative treatment of the subject, therefore, would have reversed the order of the chapters, making German Romanticism the starting-point of the whole, tracing next its ramifications and modifications throughout the neighboring countries, and finally winding up with its English counterpart, in many respects the climax of the whole movement. As it is, every one of the principal divisions of the book stands by itself. First, we have the English development from Coleridge and Scott to Tennyson and Darwin; next, the French from Lamartine and Béranger to Hugo and Comte; third, the German from the Schlegels to Heine; and, besides an occasional insistence on the solidarity of the movement in England, France, and Germany, the author does not even attempt to contribute anything to our insight into the organic interrelation of these three national literatures. Even apart from this radical defect, the book presents little to give it any sort of distinction. The characterizations of individual authors are for the most part sane and correct (there are pleasing passages on the abiding qualities of Wordsworth's poetry, p. 25; on Byron's historical position, p. 44; on Scott's artistic temper, p. 76; on Darwin's influence upon his age, p. 153); but they are never particularly original or striking. Often the connection of the individual writer with the general movement is left in the dark; and sometimes the narrative dissolves itself into a mere catalogue of authors' names and book titles. The weakest part of the book, aside from the entirely superficial sketch of the minor European literatures, is the chapter dealing with German Romanticism, which must indeed be pronounced altogether insufficient. That an elementary text-book like Kluge's 'Primer of German Literature' should be solemnly cited in the list of sources (p. 193) by the side of Haym's and Hettner's works on the Romantic School, while Georg Brandes, Jacob Minor, Otto Walzel are not even mentioned, gives one an idea of the author's equipment for this particular study. That Novallis and Tieck "joined the Church of Rome" (p. 283) is somewhat startling news. In view of the fact that of all the German war lyrics of 1870, with the one exception of the "Kutschke!" songs, none have been or are more popular than Freiligrath's "Hurrah, Germania!"

and "Der Trompeter von Mars-la-Tour," one hardly sees why Mr. Omond should go out of his way to declare (p. 337): "Freiligrath did not take any prominent part in celebrating the war of 1870."

ARCHBISHOP BENSON.

The Life of Edward White Benson, Sometime Archbishop of Canterbury. By his son, Arthur Christopher Benson of Eton College. 2 vols. Macmillan. 1899.

Some one revising the 'Dictionary of National Biography' a hundred years hence will probably find a brief paragraph sufficient for the subject of these volumes, which number 1,498 octavo pages. It is different now, and while it is easy to conceive that the book might have been condensed one-half, and been as good or better, many readers will consider it not a page too long, it is so remarkably well done. There were those who tried to dissuade the writer from the task, but the finished book must convince them that their fears were wholly vain. The son has, in the course of his biography, engaged many gentlemen who knew his father to write comments and criticisms on different aspects of his life. Some of these are excellent, but they do not suggest that any of the various writers could have written the whole biography so well as the son has written it. He has set down naught in malice, and it is equally true that he has extenuated nothing. The whims and eccentricities, the foibles and limitations of the Archbishop are as frankly indicated as his most virtuous traits, and a great deal of skill is shown in the analysis of a character and of conduct that were by no means perfectly simple.

Archbishop Benson was several years younger than his successor in the primacy. He was born in 1829, Temple in 1821. Like most subjects of biography he came of good stock—of Unitarian on the mother's side. Hence, possibly, a softer feeling for dissenters than he might otherwise have had, though on the death of his mother in 1850 (his father had died some years before) he refused his youngest brother to the care of a benevolent Unitarian uncle lest his Church principles should be corrupted. King Edward's School in Birmingham, his birthplace, was a good school, and had in Dr. Prince Lee a master of uncommon force. Young Benson thrived under his care, and the kindness of relatives secured him a university education at Trinity, Cambridge, of which he made good use, winning a full share of honors and prizes. His tastes at this time were strongly ecclesiastical. Visiting churches and studying their architecture and history was his chief delight. He was reading the Oxford Tracts before he went to Cambridge, but with no deep impression. His early correspondence with Lightfoot, his Birmingham schoolmate and life-long friend, is much taken up with discussions of Puseyism and the like; Lightfoot, strangely enough, tending that way, and Benson holding back. He had already taken a line which he kept ever after, viz., that, "in England the Roman Church is not only in error, but in heresy, and schismatical." He went to Oxford and heard Newman preach, and his description should rank well with Prof. Shairp's and some others. "Oh, Lightfoot," he writes, "never you turn Romanist if you are to have a face like that!"

From Cambridge he went in 1852 to Rugby to take a mastership under Goulburn, who was then head master there. It had been his darling wish to be a schoolmaster, and he was to have some twenty years of satisfaction, more or less perfect, in this kind. To teach in Arnold's "sixth form" in Arnold's library was something which appealed to his peculiar sensibility as a *laudator temporis acti*, even if the time past had some heretical taint. Prof. Sidgwick, whose characterizations of his cousin at different points of his career afford some of the most valuable pages of his nephew's book, remarks upon his Rugby stage that he was "not quite so accurate and sound as he was subtle and ingenious," and that his knowledge of history was liable to curious lapses. Sidgwick found him much less bookish than he was himself; as a teacher, subject to occasional violence, sometimes punishing severely without listening to explanations, and once raising a transient rebellion by an exhibition of this habit. Sidgwick's mother had made her home in Rugby, and Benson became a member of the family—there as everywhere, apparently, too magisterial. Propinquity brought about his marriage in 1859 with Mary Sidgwick; Temple, who had succeeded Goulburn, reading the marriage service. Happier choice he could not have made. The light of her face never falls upon these pages but to make them beautiful.

At Wellington College Dr. Benson nursed the fancy that he was master of a college, not merely the headmaster of a school, but with indifferent success. His reputation for severity, which began at Rugby, continued here, and he did not consider it beneath his dignity to do the flogging with his own right arm. His son thinks that his looks might have been terrible enough without the rod. They were so for his own children, whose awe of him in their early years was greater than their love. One interesting feature of the Wellington life was the close acquaintance with Kingsley, then rector of Eversley, of whom it is told that he kept a *cache* of pipes in different places on his parish rounds, so that he might have one handy at any time when overtaken by an irresistible desire to smoke. In 1872 Benson was made Chancellor of Lincoln, and, resigning Wellington, took up his residence in the cathedral city and tried hard to justify himself in his office by active interest in educational and social work.

In 1876 he was made Bishop of Truro, a See that had just been created. It is strange that it attracted him, but he may have anticipated that it would lead to something better. Those roots of his nature which fed hungrily upon the past, found sustenance in part from the associations of Cornwall with Wesley's great missionary work, and in part from his own work on the new cathedral, which must be done in the most approved and venerable ecclesiastical manner. The Methodists of the region at first objected to his "d-d regeneration" doctrine of baptism, but they were soon talking of "our cathedral" with some honest pride. Meantime the home was beautiful, and when, upon the death of Archbishop Tait, who had contemplated Dr. Benson's possible succession to the primacy, he was named for the great office, he actually had some hesitation about accepting it. For one thing, strange as it may seem, he had sincere doubts whether the salary, £25,000, would be sufficient for his support, though £3,000 had been enough

at Truro, for he was not luxurious in his tastes and was economical even to the saving of bits of twine and the gummed edges of postage-stamps, kept in a little box and carefully labelled "strips." A letter from the Queen had the usual effect on his decision. Indeed, Mr. Bagehot's idea that the Queen's part in British government is purely ornamental is traversed by every ecclesiastical biography that falls into one's hand. He was confirmed with the usual "grotesque ceremonies" and challenge of opposers at Bow Church, March 3, 1883.

The whole of the second volume is devoted to the Archbishop's conduct of his office for the thirteen years between his accession and his death. It would be impossible to indicate here, however briefly, even the more salient of the details of those very busy but quite uneventful years. The questions that engaged him were the Eastern Mission, with its problem of the Jerusalem bishopric, which had given Newman almost a fatal wound; the Old Catholic movement; Welsh disestablishment, which found in the Archbishop a vigorous antagonist; English disestablishment, which he as sturdily opposed; and preëminently the Lincoln trial for ritual excesses and the attempted rapprochement with Rome. It is interesting that he openly declared that he would rather see a dissenting state church than no state church at all. This was a characteristic note. He was a churchman in every fibre of his brain and in every drop of his blood, but as completely an English churchman, with as little inclination to Rome as any Evangelical notable. It was, however, his honest persuasion that the state needed the church more than the church needed the state. The attempted rapprochement with Rome, which put Lord Halifax and many others in a silly plight, left the Archbishop's robes unstained. He did nothing mean or common on that ridiculous scene. Others found themselves used by the Roman curia with its customary duplicity, but he was not entangled in the mesh. When he discovered the duplicity, he was angry and sinned not. When the Pope arrogantly set the seal of his contempt on the validity of English orders, it was not the Archbishop who had "sold himself for nought"; and his answer, the ink of which was hardly dry when Death found him on his knees in Gladstone's chapel at Hawarden, was as proud and dignified and self-respecting for his office and his church as his best friend, or hers, could wish.

It is a pitiful reflection upon Archbishop Benson's life that the most important business of his primacy and his life was the settlement of the Lincoln controversy, especially as that controversy has since broken out in other places and is not even silent in the midst of such arms as are now clashing for the safety of the empire on a distant field. The Archbishop's own ritualistic temper was curious and æsthetic, not serious or profound. The student in the psychology of ritualism could not find a more interesting subject than he offers. He was personally convinced that it was a matter of no importance whether water was mixed with the wine of the communion cup, or the minister took "the Eastward Position" in the first part of the communion service, or "the Manual Acts" were performed visibly, or the *Agnus Dei* was sung at a particular moment, or two candles burned during the sacrament—these being the vexed questions—but he was a master of cere-

monies from his youth up; he liked to have things done in an orderly, beautiful, and venerable manner, and he was not a little proud that he could thread the wilderness of precedent as skilfully as any ritualist of them all, and bring an astonishing amount of curious archæology to bear upon the decision of the case. Prof. Sidgwick's criticism of the Archbishop's conduct of the case is the more interesting because he tells us how he, an emancipated secularist, advised the Archbishop to take the line of ecclesiastical shrewdness, and was told that anything but "a simple, straightforward judgment" would be "neither wise nor politic."

The Strength of Gideon, and Other Stories. By Paul Laurence Dunbar. Dodd, Mead & Co.

Three Men on Wheels. By Jerome K. Jerome. Dodd, Mead & Co.

Uncavenned Broad. By Robert Grant. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Mr. Dunbar's stories of Afro-Americans range far and deep. There are sketches from the slave days and of the reconstruction times, when "the old men said, 'We know'; the young ones said, 'We have heard.'" There are still later-day stories relating to the comparative ease with which a colored man nowadays may get an education, and the next to impossibility of using it in any other way than to take it South and teach. There is a glimpse of the negro turned soldier and of the negro lynched; with peeps into the modern colored clubs in Northern cities and into the negro convention in politics. In addition, there are dialect sketches of mere character-idiom—little vignettes done with delightful humor and a naught-escaping eye for the picturesque, the grotesque, the pathetic. Each has its own word to say, whether of amusement or suggestion. But, in all, the storytelling quality remains supreme. Among sketches of Southern life these have not been outdone in truth, delicacy, and the art of happy omission. Mr. Kemble's illustrations are of their usual excellence.

Mr. Jerome is in a very amusing vein in "Three Men on Wheels," particularly after his three men are actually off on their journey and are wrestling, in the Black Forest, with German official etiquette, German time-tables, and restaurant-bespeckled landscape. If these grounds for English merry-making are not absolutely unhackneyed, still we cannot recall that any one has better characterized Unter den Linden than by describing it as "much too wide for its size," or has more intimately touched the philosophy of the German garden-maker—planting by seasons and not by temperature—than in the phrase, "unable to regulate the weather, he ignores it"; or has better pictured the Black Forest house than in saying that, as it is built on the side of a steep hill, "the ground floor is at the top and the hayloft at the bottom." The account of student fighting is horrible, but not too much so, and is the more forceful from being set with serious simplicity into a book of comicalities. Naturally, in a volume of humorous travel, the journey is steeper through some pages than others, but we have found the chronicle pleasant and even easy reading—high tribute, assuredly, to funny literature, which, like the gratitude of man, too often has left us mourning.

The author of 'Unleavened Bread' has satirized in his long novel many things worth satirizing. One is the passion for the American idea reduced to absurdity—to a point where the word American is stultified by being used as if it meant decency, with a boast of monopoly. The cult of the unconventional in life and thought, carried so far as to belittle all specialization of culture or service, is another of the author's well-lashed *bêtes-noires*. American stock-gambling, American politics, the struggle for high life, whether in Washington, New York, or small Western cities—are others of the abuses on which Mr. Grant throws the vials of a wrath at once impersonal and vitriolic. The central figure on which his weavings are draped is a woman who works her way from obscurity to prosperity, and who, though baulked of one hope after another, at last contents herself with the pinnacle of wife to a Senator to which her third husband is enabled to raise her. But though the book would fall to pieces without her, and though it is her fancies, aspirations, disappointments, and achievements that make the novel, she is not real as a character. Her hobbies are real enough taken singly or in small groups, but she rides a herd at once. She is a whirl, not an organism. And if such a woman as Selma could exist, she would not wield the influence that we are told Selma did; she is too repellent, she sits too heavily on the nerves. She is real only in being an unconscionable bore. In truth, our feeling is that this novel might with advantage be recast into a sermon. It is full of suggestion on many points of vital interest to the American citizen, and full of good counsel as to sincerity, simplicity, and training, versus cant about intuition, spontaneity, ideals, living one's own life. Under its able author's handling—for he has spared no pains, not even the reader's—it should become a significant essay. As a novel it is stamped with the hideousness of an immense ennui.

Sverrisaga: The Saga of King Sverri of Norway. Translated by J. Sephton, M.A. London: David Nutt. 1899. Pp. xxx+288.

The Old Norse *Sverris Saga* has come down to us in four ancient MSS.: it forms the whole of No. 327 of the Arna-Magnæan collection, in the University Library at Copenhagen, from about the year 1290; it is contained in No. 47 of the same collection, the manuscript known as *Eirspennil*, "brass-clasp," from early in the fourteenth century; it is in the celebrated *Flateyjarbók*, in the Royal Library, Copenhagen, from between 1370 and 1380; and in the so-called *Skalholtbok*, in the University Library, Copenhagen, from about 1430. The first two of these MSS. were written in Norway by Icelanders; the latter, as their names indicate, arose in Iceland. The *Saga* has been several times printed in the original Icelandic. The *editio princeps*, which was based upon A. M. 327, appeared in Copenhagen in 1813, as the fourth volume of the '*Heimskringla*.' The same MS. also formed the basis of the edition of the *Saga* in the eighth volume of the '*Fornmanna Sögur*,' printed at Copenhagen in 1834. The *Eirspennil* text was edited by Dr. Unger and printed in his '*Konunga Sögur*,' Christiania, 1873. The *Flatey* text is in the second volume of the '*Flateyjarbók*,' printed

at Christiania in 1860-68, under the editorship of Vigfusson and Unger. Translations of the *Saga* are at hand in Latin and in Danish, but the present is the first version to be made in English.

The author of the *Sverris Saga* in its original form was the Icelandic Karl Jónsson, the Benedictine Abbot of Thingeyri, who went to Norway in 1185 and remained for a time in direct association with the King. The short prologue prefixed to the *Saga* states that the first part was derived by the Abbot from King Sverri himself, who "sat over him and settled what he should write." The latter part is written "according to the relation of those who remembered what happened, having actually seen or heard it, and some of them had been with King Sverri in battles." This latter part was, beyond a doubt, written in Iceland, where Abbot Karl died in 1213, having outlived the King eleven years.

A definitive text of the *Sverris Saga* in the original does not exist. While the four MSS. show a general similarity that presupposes at the beginning one original text, they are of unequal length and content, many episodes appearing in but two, or sometimes in but one, of the sources. The *Flatey* text is, on the whole, the fullest. Vigfusson considered it, too, the nearest to the original and the best authority for the *Saga*. A. M. 327 is unfortunately defective at the end.

The present translation, in this lack of a standard text, takes that of the '*Fornmanna Sögur*' as its basis. The editors of this latter text made A. M. 327 the groundwork of their edition, as has already been remarked, but they also admitted many readings from the other MSS. Mr. Sephton still further emends his text from the *Flatey*-book and from *Eirspennil*, especially from the former, considering it a duty due the reader "not to omit any interesting passage." This is, of course, all very well if the interesting passages have the requisite congruity that unmistakably marks it as belonging to the original *Saga*. The definitive text of the *Saga*, it may be safe to assume, and consequently its translation also, to give but a single instance, will not contain, unless we are much mistaken, the story of the Icelandic poet Mani, as told in chapter 85, the only authority for which is A. M. 327. It is impossible from the translation to tell accurately the composition of the text, which to the critical reader is a matter of some value. The *Flatey*-book chapter numbers are set in the margin throughout, but it is not apparent just what they are meant to include. The "Notes on Some Readings," at the back of the book, do not cover the whole ground. It is, perhaps, needless to say, on the other hand, that the author's process of selection has given us a most enjoyable story, that would suffer in the telling by any elimination whatever.

The *Sverris Saga* tells the story of King Sverri, from his obscure birth and boyhood in the Faeroe Islands, to his death (1202) on the throne of Norway, where, if we accept the year of his coronation for the beginning of his reign, he had ruled for twenty-five years. His claims to the crown were of the flimsiest, without it being assumed that the one man of his time best fitted for the dignity had an inherent right to wear it. It is almost palpably impossible that he was, as he pretended, "the natural son of King Sigurd Gilchrist; and his life, as Vig-

fusson puts it, is tinged with a mixture of half-conscious, half-instinctive hypocrisy. The time, however, was ripe for a clear head and an unbending will, and, in spite of the obstacles that, one after another, were overcome only to rise again apparently more formidable than before, the "great adventurer" led his Birchlegs in the end to certain victory. Not even excepting Olaf Tryggvason, Sverri is in force of personality the greatest King in the long list of those who ruled old Norway. We meet him here in Abbot Karl's *Saga* as a living person, whose characteristics, although recorded by an ardent admirer, are given with a convincing fidelity that few of the *saga* writers, known or unknown, have surpassed. The last chapter but one in the present translation admirably summarizes these traits, which have been abundantly justified by the detailed narrations of the *Saga*. He was, to use its own words, unlike Sigurd, his reputed father, "steadfast and calm; wary and cautious in the choice of friends; stanch and even-tempered; sagacious and conscientious." Like him, "he was ambitious, yet magnanimous; courteous, and obliging toward friends, but hard towards foes; popular with his men-at-arms and followers, for he was hopeful under misfortune, and his best friends were those who were most intimate with his ways." And this is undoubtedly an accurate picture of the man who, by his own strength of individuality, swept away for ever the old order of things in Norway—"its royalty, its nobility, its old customs and life"—and cleared the way for the new that ultimately succeeded it.

At the end of the *Saga* the translator wisely prints an English version of the so-called '*Anecdote on Sverri*,' a defence of the King against the bishops and the clergy, in which it is maintained that they are to blame, and not the Pope, for the ban that has been placed upon him; the King's position being defended particularly by quotations from the Canon Law. The document is preserved in a Norse law vellum from about 1325, and, according to Munch, its author was either Sverri himself or some one acting under his guidance and with his coöperation. If it actually does belong to Sverri, it throws, again, an interesting side-light upon his remarkable personality, since it recalls vividly the fact that he had himself been educated for the priesthood, and had already been ordained a *diaconus*, when he left the Faeroes to put himself at the head of his handful of ragged followers, in what seemed, at the outset, the hopeless quest of a kingdom.

The present volume includes, besides an introduction, and the notes already alluded to, an adequate general index, and a number of maps to illustrate the localities of the *Saga*. From the point of view of the English of the translation, this is a decided improvement upon the *Saga* of King Olaf Tryggvason, which appeared as the first, as this is the fourth, volume of the Northern Library.

Samson Occom and the Christian Indians of New England. By W. Deloss Love, Ph.D. Boston: The Pilgrim Press. Pp. vi, 379.

Dr. Love has added to the reviving literature of early missionary activity a readable and useful monograph. It is important not only as a biography of Occom, who, if not "the greatest of his race," was proba-

bly the "first in peace" of his people, but also as containing an excellent account of probably the greatest attempt at colonization and self-government by the Indians themselves on the model of their white neighbors. The book begins with a brief and not very satisfactory account of early Puritan efforts at Christianizing and civilizing the savages, with some notice of John Eliot. From the first the idea of training native missionaries, among other reasons, led to the taking of Indian children into certain white families for education as well as service, and the success of this to the establishing of Indian schools. The foundation of Moor's Indian Charity School, later Dartmouth College, by Dr. Eleazer Wheelock, was, in part at least, suggested by his success with the subject of the present volume, Samson Occom, who, converted at seventeen, came under Dr. Wheelock's influence, and lived in his house four years. For some time after this he taught school and studied, later becoming a missionary among his brethren at Montauk. Occom was ordained to the ministry in 1759, and, after some missionary efforts among the Oneidas, reached the climax of his career in a visit to England made in 1765, at Whitefield's suggestion, on behalf of Dr. Wheelock's school. Here he seems to have created little if any less sensation than that much more picturesque savage, Joseph Brant, some fifteen years later, and achieved a success beyond all hopes or expectations. An able and interesting speaker, he delivered in the two years of his stay some 400 sermons and addresses, and he collected for the school the astonishing sum of \$60,000, thus laying the foundation of the prosperity of the college. On his return he busied himself with preaching, and presently became interested in the movement, the story of which fills the latter part of Dr. Love's book, to found a settlement of Christian Indians of New England in the Oneida country.

A tract of land was obtained and emigrants secured, chiefly by the exertions of Occom's son-in-law, Joseph Johnson, another Mohegan of much activity and some ability. But scarcely had the migration taken place when the storm of the Revolution swept away the new settlement of "Brothertown." Its inhabitants took refuge with a somewhat similar colony of Indians in Stockbridge, Mass., whence in 1783 they returned to their old settlement and refounded Brothertown, certain of the Stockbridge Indians accompanying them and founding a neighboring village, New Stockbridge. In 1789 Occom removed to Brothertown, where he passed the rest of his days as pastor of that flock. With the advance of white settlement the Indians moved on again, and, after 1831, began a new settlement at Green Bay, Wis., where their descendants are still to be found.

It is to be regretted that Dr. Love has not used, or at least quoted, certain printed sources for his story with which he must be familiar, notably Force's 'American Archives,' which has some interesting letters and petitions of Joseph Johnson. Too much praise, however, cannot be given to the care, the industry, and patience of the author; and the knowledge and use of documents, in the main unprinted, are remarkable. To the story proper is appended an interesting sketch of the town government of the Brothertown Christian Indians, an elaborate appendix of the family history of the Indians, various illustrations, and an

index, though one looks in vain for what would have been a most acceptable addition to the volume, a full bibliography of the subject. We close with a striking passage:

"Their ancestors fought with Uncas, 'the white man's friend,' in the Pequot war," the author says of these Green Bay Indians; "went out with his three sons against King Phillip, and came to the rescue of the English after the massacre of Bloody Brook. The rolls of all the later colonial wars contain the names of soldiers from whom they can prove a lineal descent. Their great-grandfathers fought in the Revolution, and so many of them perished that it was, by the testimony of William Williams, the death-blow to their tribal strength. In the war of 1812 their grandsires were engaged, and they themselves, out of their diminished numbers, furnished nearly three-score and ten soldiers in the Civil War."

Des Indes à la Planète Mars: Étude sur un cas de somnambulisme avec glossolalie.
Par Th. Flournoy. Paris: Alcan. 1900.
Pp. 420.

A very few years ago the production of this remarkable book would have been impossible. Its heroine, "Mlle. Smith," as Prof. Flournoy calls her for purposes of publication, would have excited only scientific aversion or contempt; and, the superstitious interpretation of the curious phenomena she exhibits being left unopposed, her case would have served only to confirm the religious dogmas of spiritualism, or would perhaps have started a new sect whose faith would have baffled any attempt to ascertain the actual facts. As it is, the case has had the good fortune to fall into the hands of a singularly competent, unprejudiced, and tactful investigator in M. Flournoy, the professor of psychology in the University of Geneva, and though he has not been able wholly to eliminate all its tantalizing features, he is to be congratulated on converting it into a real and substantial contribution to science, which is at the same time as interesting as a romance to the general reader.

In barest outline the plot of M. Flournoy's book (which has already gone into a second edition) is this: "Mlle. Smith," who on weekdays earns her living as a hardworking, trusted, and capable employee of a dry-goods store in Geneva, acts on Sundays as the (unpaid) "medium" of a spiritualist circle which invited M. Flournoy to examine her, and with which he has found it possible to work amicably. On these occasions "Mlle. Smith" goes into trances in which she seems to live over again scenes from her past lives. She becomes once more Simandini, a wife of Sivrouka Nayaka, the rajah of South Kanara, who builds the strongholds of Chandragiri on the Malabar coast in 1401. She is once more the delight of the harem, and re-enacts the terrible scene of suttee which closed her life. And, strange to hear, she discourses fluently in a mysterious Oriental tongue, the words of which the bystanders' ignorance can only imperfectly reproduce. At other times she reverts to another life of crowned misery, that of Marie Antoinette, and plays this part also with dramatic propriety: Throughout, she remains in touch with the persons who have once entered into her life; hence she recognizes among her present friends Philippe Egalité and the old Marquis of Mirabeau, while the Cagliostro who was once entangled with Marie Antoinette in the affair of the diamond necklace, now functions as her "spirit guide" (being in reality, M. Flournoy holds, a sec-

ondary consciousness which displays itself in various automatisms). As for M. Flournoy himself, he is, it appears, no other than a modern development of Sivrouka Nayaka. Yet another personage from her Indian life is now on Mars, and through him, in a third series of trances, she enters into communication with the denizens of this interesting planet. She speaks, writes (with a peculiar script), and translates the Martian language, and depicts the planet's scenery consistently, if not convincingly.

Now what are we to make of all this? M. Flournoy rejects, apparently with good reason, the suggestion of fraud. But he also rejects the interpretation which this imitation by nature of Kipling's artistic fiction in 'The Finest Story in the World' would at first sight suggest. The part of Marie Antoinette, he points out, is not difficult to act, though his medium acts it well. The Martian language, though quite different in its vocabulary from French (the only language Mlle. Smith normally knows), is French in its syntax and structure. The Indian dream is more difficult to account for. For though he has been fortunate enough to find, in an obscure old French history of India, a passage which establishes the existence of Sivrouka Nayaka at Chandragiri in 1401, "Mlle. Smith" indubitably produces words which must be deciphered as Sanskrit, or nearly so. And, what is perhaps still stranger, she never allows the sound of an *f* to slip into her unknown tongue, and the savants declare that this sound never occurs in Sanskrit and its derivatives. Nevertheless, he supposes that the historical passage referred to must somehow once have caught "Mlle. Smith's" eye, have been retained subconsciously, and have formed the basis on which her imagination constructed the whole poetic romance of Simandini.

And there it is probable that science will have to leave this interesting case. It is very unlikely that the forgotten sources of the inspiration of the medium's imagination will ever be fully traced, and that her automatic writing in Devanagiri characters will be found capable of so convincing an explanation as the unique Arabic text figured on page 289. On the other hand, it is even more unlikely that the astonishing "mimicry" of evidence of immortality and reincarnation which "Mlle. Smith's" case exhibits, can ever be hardened into solid proof. For, granting that Simandini speaks an Aryan vernacular of South India (and modern Kanarese is a Dravidian tongue) such as it was five hundred years ago, who knows enough about the linguistic situation of the time to establish the fact? And even if any one could pronounce judgment on the language, is it likely that he would be able to make anything out of fragments recorded under unfavorable conditions by observers who were entirely ignorant of their meaning? On the whole, therefore, it seems, as though in this case also, as in Kipling's story, the jealous "Lords of Life and Death" would succeed in keeping to themselves the secret which we all have so great an interest in discovering.

Reminiscences of Morris Steinert. Compiled and arranged by Jane Marlin. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Mr. Morris Steinert has a hobby which has made him well known on two continents. He has for many years purchased

all the old clavichords, harpsichords, and other precursors of the pianoforte that he could find, and to-day he has a collection which rivals that of any museum in Europe. He has exhibited it, at his own expense, at a number of our colleges, and has made a thorough study of the history of the pianoforte. More than that, he has arrived at the extraordinary conclusion that the modern pianoforte (which, in its best specimens, is really the finest instrument of any kind now made, as Wagner himself admitted) is "colorless and inexpressive" (!), and he has therefore endeavored to improve it by constructing a new kind of instrument, which he calls the "Steinertone," and which seems to be an attempt to bring back some of the good qualities of the clavichord. With this we are not concerned here; but it may be said that the story of Mr. Steinert's life, as told in this volume, has sufficient interest to make it a pleasant evening's entertainment.

In the German village where he was born, in 1831, he found, on revisiting it a few years ago, that there still exists the night watchman, with his lantern and horn, calling out the hour of the night and blowing his horn. Before emigrating to America—on a vessel which required a month to cross the Atlantic—he made a European tour, which included Russia and Switzerland, selling optical goods. He tried the same thing on landing in America, and his proficiency as a player on the violoncello and the piano enabled him to add a little to his income. For a time he played in the opera orchestra which accompanied Mario and Grisi—an orchestra which included Theodore Thomas among the violinists. Later on he drifted South, taught at seminaries, played the organ, started a music-store, and rode to the estates of various planters to tune their pianos, in all of which occupations he had not a few queer experiences, which are duly chronicled. During the war, being unwilling to fight against the North, he left the town of Athens, where he had a prosperous business, and escaped to New York, abandoning all his property, so as not to arouse suspicions as to his intended movements. He then went into the piano business, and gradually developed his passion for old-fashioned instruments, which took him back to Germany in search of them. It was not easy to find them; for when the old clavichords and harpsichords were superseded by the pianoforte, they passed into the hands of peasants, who in turn relegated them to garrets and barns, and it required much search and detective work to get at them. Finally, he had the satisfaction of bringing together a collection which attracted much attention at the Vienna Exposition of 1892.

Mr. Steinert thinks that the works of the composers of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries sound better on the old-fashioned instruments than on ours. There may be a grain of truth in this; yet, on the other hand, there can be no shadow of a doubt that, if Bach and Handel and Mozart could have had the choice of a modern grand or upright, they would have accepted it with alacrity, and modified their style accordingly. As a curiosity, it may be added that Mr. Steinert, absorbed in his specialty, confesses that vocal music has little attraction for him.

Le Pays des Amazones, L'El-Dorado, Les Terres à Caoutchouc. Par Le Baron de Santa-Anna Néry. Paris: Librairie Guillaumin & Cie. 1899. Large 8vo, pp. xxxvi, 420. III.

This is the second volume on the Amazon from the pen of Baron de Santa-Anna Néry, the first having been published in 1884. Since then great changes have taken place in what must ever remain the most superb of tropical valleys. Under republican institutions individual effort has been stimulated, and rapid development has gone forward in the wilds of the Amazon as it has in the coast regions of Brazil. That this has been due entirely to the change in the form of government would be too much to say. What is certain is that zealous efforts are being made on every side to promote the unfolding of the great resources of the country, and nowhere have these borne better fruit than in the valley of the Amazon. Encouraged in part by subventions, either from the general or from State Governments, there are to-day two lines of steamships plying regularly between British and Continental ports and the Brazilian ports of Pará and Manáos, the latter 1,000 miles up the River Amazon; two lines from New York to the same ports, and one from Marseilles and other Mediterranean cities. There are coasting lines running from Manáos to Rio de Janeiro, Fortaleza, and other points; two lines of river steamers from Pará and Manáos to Iquitos, Peru, 2,400 miles from the mouth of the river, besides twenty-three other lines to the heads of navigation on all the most important tributaries of the Amazon. Manáos has grown from a city of about 10,000 inhabitants in 1884 to over 40,000 at the present time, in spite of its isolation, which, from the export merchant's point of view, is very great, considering that no telegraphic communication exists with the markets of the world. A cable has been laid from Pará to Manáos, following the river, but floods so continually interrupt the service that plans are now being made to incur the enormous expense of building a land line through the vast unbroken forests. A shorter and easier route for a telegraph line would be northwards to British Guiana, but the Brazilians are averse to encouraging the interest of that colony in Manáos and the Amazonian trade.

Our author devotes much space to a consideration of the importance of Manáos. Every traveller since the days of Herndon has been impressed with the magnificent geographical position of this city. It has been compared to St. Louis, but comparisons are usually faulty. The railroad has combined with the rivers to assure the growth of St. Louis, whereas Manáos must depend upon navigation alone. This is the great difficulty in the development of the valley of the Amazon, the feature that must, for generations at least, retard its growth and hinder manufacturing enterprises on any but an insignificant scale. The untechnical optimist may close his eyes to many hard facts which the engineer perceives at a glance, and picture a well-rounded industrial life in this vast tropical basin, but it is difficult to see how this can ever be. Still, the commerce of the Amazon is increasing, and will reach large proportions, and Manáos will assuredly be the controlling centre of it all. The newcomers who are swelling its population are full of confidence and enthusiasm; they

are beautifying their city, adding every modern convenience in the form of good water, sewerage, electric-light, and railroads, and they devote funds to educational uses with lavish hands. We shall be able to measure the growth of the Amazonian region by the advances made in the city of Manáos.

'Le Pays des Amazones' gives a very detailed account of the physical features of the country, the fauna, flora, and minerals, the native tribes, conditions of life, and the leading industries. In this respect, however, nothing is presented which will be new to readers of the works of Herndon, Orton, Bates, Wallace, and Crevaux. Baron de Santa-Anna Néry's knowledge of the upper Amazon in Peru is very limited, and in many respects inaccurate, as, for example, where he speaks of the rapids of Guzman and Achial as obstructions to navigation. These are, in fact, nothing more than shoals, over which vessels of five feet draught can pass at any season. He is an enthusiastic believer in the ability of the European races to adapt themselves to the climate of the tropics, and to perform there the ordinary duties of agricultural and other outdoor occupations. This has been discussed by students who have examined the matter more closely than he, and who have reached a very different conclusion.

The work, to sum up, is a valuable one for its own sake, and contains references to all the most notable literature on the Amazon, which will prove helpful to students and travellers. The illustrations are numerous, if not of high quality.

A History of Quaker Government in Pennsylvania. Volume II. The Quakers in the Revolution. By Isaac Sharpless. Philadelphia: T. S. Leach & Co. 1899.

Nothing could be more prepossessing than the manner in which Mr. Sharpless goes about his *Ehrenrettung*. His style is altogether unpretentious; it has the plainness appropriate in a writer of his sect. He undertakes neither to defend nor to condemn the course taken by the Friends of Pennsylvania during the Revolution. That course, however, has been so grossly misrepresented by the indiscriminating panegyrists of our "patriotic" forefathers as to make it desirable, in the interests of historic accuracy, that it should be explained, and this Mr. Sharpless has successfully done. His case is made up principally of original documents, both public and private, and it is convincing. No ground is left for contending that the Quakers were deficient in enlightened patriotism, or that a larger proportion of them were Tories than was found among the better classes of society. Some four hundred of them violated the principles of their sect by taking an active part in the military operations against the British, while perhaps a score openly espoused the British cause. The great mass simply carried out their principle of non-resistance, while their leaders exerted themselves with the greatest earnestness and intelligence to bring about a peaceful settlement of the controversy with the British sovereign.

As a matter of fact, the Quakers were ceasing to govern Pennsylvania before the troubles with the mother country began. They had always maintained peaceful relations with the Indians, but the swarm of emigrants, largely of the aggressive Scotch-

Irish stock, had very modern views of the methods to be employed in dealing with inferior races. These emigrants, settling on the frontiers, where they could obtain lands cheaply, at once fell out with the Indian tribes. They maltreated them, and, when they resisted, slaughtered them. The Indian wars thus brought on could not be conscientiously supported by the Quakers, and they were hence compelled to relinquish the government of a community determined on expansion by armed force. Their true attitude is shown by the fact that during a period of entire peace, between 1733 and 1751, no less than £8,000 was expended by them in satisfaction of Indian claims. Even after they withdrew from the government, they labored to preserve peace with the Indians, and, had their counsels been heeded and the Indians been dealt with fairly, they might have been made friends and allies, instead of blood-thirsty foes.

The most prominent Quakers labored earnestly, with Franklin, to secure the repeal of the Stamp Acts, and the combination to abstain from the use of imported goods was heartily supported by the whole Society. Their moderate but firm protests accomplished much more than the riotous proceedings in other colonies, and it is quite possible that, if their policy of passive resistance and dignified remonstrance had prevailed, the British Government would have ceased its oppressions. The practical independence of the colonies would have been secured by peaceful means, and the miseries of the Revolutionary war been averted. It is needless to say that such counsels were repugnant to the "Sons of Liberty," who made use of their power, so soon as independence was declared, to plunder and persecute the Quakers for not aiding in the war. It is pleasant to read that Washington exerted himself to secure humane treatment for the abused non-combatants, and Mr. Sharpless records an interesting conversation between him and Warner Mifflin. "Mr. Mifflin," said Washington, then President, "will you now please tell me on what principle you were opposed to the Revolution?" "Yes, Friend Washington; upon the principle that I should be opposed to a change in the present government. All that was ever secured by revolution is not an adequate compensation for the poor mangled soldiers, and for loss of life and limb." "I honor your sentiments," replied the President, "for there is more in them than mankind has generally considered."

Mr. Sharpless adds a chapter on the attitude of the Friends towards slavery; but it is hardly necessary to comment on this honorable

feature of their general course. There is much in his book which is sadly instructive at the present crisis in our history, and we may well wish that the Quaker influence was still strong among us. We are indebted to the author for his judicious correction of some inveterate prejudices against the sect; but we must respectfully assert that so good a work deserves a better index than he has provided for it.

Bird Homes: The Nests, Eggs, and Breeding Habits of the Land Birds Breeding in the Eastern United States. With Hints on the Rearing and Photographing of Young Birds. By A. Radclyffe Dugmore. Illustrated with photographs from Nature by the Author. Doubleday & McClure Co. 1900.

Mr. Dugmore's 'Bird Homes' is a distinctly welcome contribution to popular bird literature, and in method and scope it in some degree occupies a new field. The purpose of the book is "to stimulate the love of birds," to help "the ordinary unscientific person to get some closer glimpse of the birds in their rôles as heads of a family; to study their wonderfully adapted nests and beautiful eggs as manifestations of that bird nature which is so charmingly varied and so endlessly interesting." In addition to being a handbook of the nests and eggs of the land birds of the Eastern United States, in which field it has several predecessors, it is especially attractive and instructive through its numerous half-tone illustrations, made from photographs taken by the author, of nests *in situ* of some thirty to forty species. There are also four colored plates of eggs, and ten colored plates of nests, made by the three-plate process. This method has the merit of cheapness, and the faults necessarily implied thereby. While fairly well adapted for a certain class of natural-history subjects, it seems less so for the background of vegetation and other accessories in the varied surroundings of birds' nests. The plain half-tones are excellent, both in execution and in the selection of subjects, and by most people will doubtless be preferred to the colored plates. The series of illustrations of young birds, mostly just out of the nest, are especially interesting and attractive portraits of baby bird life.

'Bird Homes' consists of two parts. Part I. includes six chapters of introductory matter, including a chapter on egg-collecting, photographing nests and young birds, and hints on rearing and keeping young birds. While deprecating egg-collecting "as being in most cases entirely unnecessary," and, as conducted by the average small boy, entirely need-

less and unprofitable as a means of acquiring information, Mr. Dugmore gives elaborate instructions as to how to collect and care for eggs, which perhaps might just as well have been omitted; this, however, is to some extent offset by directions about studying the nesting habits of birds, and the growth and interesting traits of young birds, without destroying or seriously interfering with the prosperity of the family. The propriety of keeping pet birds is discussed at some length, the conclusion being that when well cared for they are not necessarily unhappy, but in most instances contented and at ease, while the opportunity thus afforded for the study of birds in respect to their individual traits and habits cannot be obtained in any other way. "The whole question is, of course, one that each person must decide for himself; but unless there is a great deal of certainty in one's mind, it is surely better to give the birds the benefit of the doubt—and their freedom. . . . To deprive any wild animal of its liberty and then neglect it is sheer barbarity."

Part II., forming the principal part of the book, is devoted to a formal description of the nests, eggs, and nesting habits of the land birds found in the United States east of the Plains, arranged arbitrarily under special chapter headings in accordance with the position of the nest—whether on the ground, in trees or bushes, or in holes—and its character, as to whether an open or covered nest, saddled on a limb or pensile, etc.

The book as a whole is very attractively got up, and is filled with good matter, Mr. Dugmore being well qualified for the task he has here undertaken. The abundance of excellent illustrations renders the book of special interest to naturalists as well as to the general reader.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

- Abbott, Katharine M. Trolley Trips in and about Fascinating Washington. Washington: J. F. Jarvis. 10c.
Bigelow, H. J. 1. The Mechanism of Dislocations and Fracture of the Hip; 2. Litholapaxy; or Rapid Lithotomy with Evacuation. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Clark, Prof. J. B. The Distribution of Wealth: A Theory of Wages, Interest, and Profits. Macmillan. \$3.
Dahn, F. Ein Kampf um Rom. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 70c.
Giltner, Leigh G. The Path of Dreams: Poems. Fleming H. Revell Co.
Ham, C. H. Mind and Hand: Manual Training the Chief Factor in Education. American Book Co. \$1.25.
Jókai, M. The Baron's Sons. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. \$1.50.
Keeler, Harriet L. Our Native Trees. Scribner. \$2.
Leys, J. K. The Black Terror: A Romance of Russia. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. \$1.50.
Markwick, W. F., and Smith, W. A. The True Citizen: How to Become One. American Book Co. 60c.
Reinsch, P. S. World Politics at the End of the Nineteenth Century. Macmillan. \$1.25.
Sears, E. H. An Outline of Political Growth in the Nineteenth Century. Macmillan. \$3.

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